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THE PERCEPTIONS, ATTITUDES AND FEELINGS OF FOURTH YEAR B.ED.
STUDENTS TOWARDS AFFECTIVE EDUCATION AT THE UNIVERSITY OF
ALBERTA

by



GLORIA BOISVERT

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This thesis is dedicated to
my mother, who taught me to
love and respect people and
to my father, who taught me
to love and respect
learning and knowledge.

Abstract

The three major purposes of this study were:

1. To investigate the beliefs, values and classroom management techniques of fourth year education students at the University of Alberta.
2. To explore those factors which differentiate humanistically-oriented teachers from more traditionally-oriented teachers.
3. To identify differences between students in the various teaching programs as to their projected classroom practices.

The subjects consisted of seventy randomly selected fourth year education students from the University of Alberta. There were fifty-two females and eighteen males. Twenty-five were in the secondary program, thirty-two were in the elementary program, four in the vocational program and nine were in special education.

After an investigation of available value and attitude inventories, it was concluded that none addressed the essential components of humanistic education. A questionnaire which surveyed five general areas was developed. These areas included: demographic variables, and affective background or history of affective experiences, educational values and attitudes as they related to humanistic concepts, potential classroom management techniques and exposure to humanistic concepts and experiences at the university level. The questionnaire was designed to explore the possible relationships between student educational and home experiences and their perceptions of and attitudes towards affective education.

The data suggested that respondents perceived themselves as highly self-aware individuals who were in control of their thoughts and feelings most of the time. However, the equivocation expressed on some of the items suggested that respondents were less self-aware than they perceived themselves to be.

Results suggested sympathy for the goals and values of the humanistic model of education. The equivocation expressed on items dealing with the philosophical and theoretical underpinnings of the model suggested an intellectual acceptance which was not integrated with or based upon personal experience.

A number of implications for the teacher education emerged as a result of the expressed preference for humanistic techniques. Because the humanistic model attends to affective as well as cognitive development, future teachers require more experientially based learning in dealing with the recognition and expression of feelings.

Facilitative or humanistic teachers need to be aware of the impact their behavior has upon students. Consequently, more courses which emphasize or encourage self-reflection and self-awareness are recommended.

Future research could investigate the relationships between self-awareness and the development of facilitative or humanistic teaching styles. Little empirical investigation of this area has been carried out. Focussing upon this relationship is important if the preference for

humanistic teaching is to be developed into a meaningful integration of theory and experience which will produce more effective humanistic teachers.

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Table of Contents

Chapter	Page
I. BACKGROUND TO THE PROBLEM: WHY HUMANISTIC EDUCATION?	1
A. Introductory Overview	2
B. Industrial and Post-Industrial Education	3
C. New Research Findings in Hemispheric Specialization	6
D. The Affective Component in Learning	9
E. Summary	13
II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE	14
A. Humanistic Psychology	14
The Emergence of Humanistic Psychology	14
What Is Humanistic Psychology?	15
Existentialism and Phenomenology	16
Major Principles of Humanistic Psychology	16
B. Humanistic Education	18
Major Theorists	18
C. Common Humanistic Concepts	21
Goals of Education	21
Learning	21
The Role of the Teacher	22
The Role of the Student	22
The Importance of Affect	23
D. Review of the Literature	23
Facilitating Humanistic Goals	24
E. Purpose of the Study	30
III. METHOD	32

A. Subjects	32
B. Development of the Questionnaire	32
C. Procedure for Data Collection	33
D. Assumptions	34
IV. RESULTS	35
A. General Frequency Data	35
B. Affective Experiences at School	35
C. Affective Modelling of Parents	38
D. Affective Experiences in Childhood	38
E. Adulthood Experiences	39
F. Educational Values	42
G. Experiences with Emotions	44
H. Classroom Management Techniques	46
I. University Experiences	48
J. In Summary	50
K. Factor Analysis of Interval Data	51
L. Analyses of Variance	54
M. Cross Tabulations of Categorical Data	57
Age	57
Specialization	58
Program	58
Sex	59
Students Who Talk With Friends About Strong Emotions: Item 47	61
Difficulty With Frustration: Item 56	61
Taken Courses on Humanistic Concepts: Item 71	62
Those Who Talk With Siblings: Item 50	62

Professors Who Encouraged Expression of Feelings in Courses: Item 75	63
Students Who Favor Feeling Type Courses at University: Item 76	64
N. Cross Tabulations of Actual-Ideal Choices of Classroom Techniques	65
O. Cross Tabulations of Programs and Choice of Classroom Technique	67
P. Analysis of Variance of Differences in Six Factor Scores for Each Training Program	67
Q. Classroom Management Techniques	70
V. DISCUSSION AND SUMMARY	73
A. Summary and Implications	82
B. Directions for Future Research	83
References	85
APPENDIX A: Questionnaire	91
APPENDIX B: Assumptions of the Old And New Paradigms of Learning	108
APPENDIX C: Assumptions Implicit In Current Education	111
APPENDIX D: Breakdown of Questionnaire Design	114

List of Tables

Table	Page
IV.1 Frequency Responses to Likert Scale: Items Dealing With Affective Experiences and Educational Values.....	36
IV.2 Frequency of Responses to Items Dealing With Emotions and Feelings.....	45
IV.3 Choice of Classroom Management Techniques Across Situations From Actual and Ideal Perspectives.....	47
IV.4 Response to Items Dealing With Humanistic Values and Affective Experiences.....	49
IV.5 Item Loadings For Varimax Rotated Factors From Questionnaires.....	53
IV.6 Choice of Classroom Management Techniques Producing Significant Differences in Factor Scores Across Scenarios.....	55
IV.7 Percent Choice of Classroom Management Technique for Actual and Ideal Perspectives According to Sex.....	60
IV.8 Association of Choices of Classroom Management Technique From Actual and Ideal Perspectives	66
IV.9 Mean Percent Choice of Classroom Management Technique For Different Teacher Training Programs....	68
IV.10 Comparison of Factor Score Means For Teacher Training Programs.....	69
IV.11 Choice of Classroom Management Techniques Across Situations From Ideal And Actual Perspectives For All Programs.....	71

I. BACKGROUND TO THE PROBLEM: WHY HUMANISTIC EDUCATION?

The overriding purpose of any educational system is the development of productive citizens in order to ensure the survival of that society (Peters, 1970; Postman & Weingartner, 1969; Rogers, 1969; Toffler, 1970; Valett, 1977). The development of "productive citizens" has increasingly been assigned to the public educational system by western society.

There is little doubt that both our society and educational system are facing a period of confusion, technological growth and changing needs (Postman & Weingartner 1969; Toffler, 1980). Valett (1977) suggests that it is important for contemporary education to adapt in order to meet the changing social needs resulting from rapid technological growth.

One educational alternative which may meet the changing needs of society is the adoption of a humanistic orientation to education.

There are at least three important reasons why an exploration of educational alternatives is necessary:

1. Rapid technological growth and a movement to a post-industrial era (Toffler, 1980).
2. New research in brain functioning which has implications for altering conceptions of human intelligence (Ornstein & Galin, 1977).
3. More inclusive definitions of human learning which emphasize the affective component (Brown, Phillips & Shapiro, 1976; Weinstein & Fantini, 1977; Rogers, 1976). The remainder of this chapter outlines the relevance of humanistic education to each of the above areas.

A. Introductory Overview

The purpose of this study was to explore the following:

1. Are the potential teaching practices of final-year education students relatively humanistic?
2. What are the attitudes, beliefs and educational values of these future teachers?
3. Are certain personal attitudes and values and experiences necessary for teachers to implement a humanistic orientation in the classroom?
4. Do students in the various teaching programs differ in their value orientation to teaching and education?

Chapter One examines three reasons why it is important to look at alternative value orientations to schooling with particular emphasis on the humanistic orientation. The discussion is intended to facilitate an understanding of the assumptions upon which current educational practices are based and the feasibility of the humanistic approach to schooling.

Chapter Two begins with a review of the emergence of third-force or humanistic psychology and examines the major concepts of this branch of psychology. The discussion then moves to an examination of humanistic education literature, with particular attention to three major theorists who have had an impact on humanistic education.

The remaining three chapters deal with the method, results, and discussion of the results, respectively.

B. Industrial and Post-Industrial Education

Toffler (1970) notes that in a stagnant pre-industrial society, the past, present and future are all the same in that "the past crept forward into the present and repeated itself in the future" (p. 399). Since there is little change within that society, a formal educational system is unnecessary and thus parents and family can pass on the skills, knowledge and values necessary to prepare their children for productive membership.

He notes that industrialization changed both society and, ultimately, education in a very profound way. Political, economic and value upheavals resulted in a new society in which the present was and is very different from the past. Old methods of educating and preparing children were no longer appropriate, as the new age required a new type of person who could function within a bureaucratic structure.

As more people moved from the farm to the city and became economically dependent on the factory, it was important to have people who were equipped to survive in the industrial environment. Mass education took over the task of preparing individuals who could work at repetitive tasks, take orders from authority figures, and above all, function according to the clock, rather than the sun and the moon (Toffler, 1970).

In many ways, the school became a mirror of the social environment. The structure of the system, (i.e. bells, desks

in rows, authoritarian hierarchy and grades) taught implicit lessons referred to by Toffler (1980) as the "covert curriculum". "It consisted--and still does in most industrialized nations--of three courses: one in punctuality, one in obedience and one in rote repetitive work" (p. 29). Toffler suggests that "the whole idea of assembling masses of students (raw material) to be processed by teachers (workers) in a centrally located school (factory) was a stroke of industrial genius" (p. 400).

Rapid technological and scientific advances, especially during the past fifty years have changed society as fundamentally as did industrialization and urbanization. The world of today, however, is as radically different from the industrial world as the industrial world was from pre-industrial society.

The educational system of today needs to be different from the educational system of the industrial era (Valett, 1977) if it hopes to accommodate current technological and social changes. However, in spite of attempted innovation and change, western educational systems are still preparing individuals for an industrialized society which no longer exists (Leonard, 1968; Toffler, 1970; Toffler, 1980). For example, there are still rows of desks, bells, a bureaucratic hierarchy in which students are at the bottom, teachers in authoritarian roles, grades and marks, a pass-fail system, lecture style as the primary mode of instruction and an emphasis on the acquisition of cognitive

skills and rote memory.

Because rapid scientific and technological advances have made the future unpredictable (Toffler, 1980), it seems unwise to attempt to prepare students for a new and uncertain world by relying upon traditional educational practices.

One way to prepare individuals for an uncertain future is to shift the emphasis from knowledge and acquisition to educating for choice, change and critical reasoning (Leonard, 1968; Peters, 1970; Toffler, 1980; Valett, 1977).

In order to make critical choices, it is important to be aware of one's own beliefs, feelings and values (Rogers, 1976; Peters, 1970). This awareness enables a person to make choices that are best for the individual.

Since there are fewer traditional roles to slip into that define one's place or position within society, it falls upon each individual to define his/her role. How can a person be equipped to make such decisions without an awareness of his/her own values, beliefs, attitudes, feelings, individual needs and personal world-view?

Cognitive development, mastery of information and skills cannot provide this type of awareness, but perhaps the humanistic approach, with its emphasis on affective development, in conjunction with cognitive and physical development can begin to do so.

C. New Research Findings in Hemispheric Specialization

New research findings on brain functioning, particularly in the area of hemispheric specialization, may have implications for the cognitive processes which are emphasized and for the subject areas studied within the educational systems.

At present, those cognitive abilities which are primarily considered to be left hemispheric processes are emphasized, and those abilities which are deemed right hemispheric processes are considered to be frills or extras (Ornstein & Galin, 1977; Weinstein & Fantini, 1975).

Research in hemispheric specialization may challenge the notion that left hemispheric processes (linear verbal, analytical rational thinking) constitute intelligence. This challenge may in time effect which subject areas are to be emphasized within the school systems.

Robert Ornstein (1977) explains hemispheric specialization in the following way:

The cerebral cortex of the brain is divided into two hemispheres, joined by a large bundle of interconnecting fibers called the "corpus collosum." The left side of the body is mainly controlled by the right side of the cortex, and the right side of the body by the left side of the cortex. When we speak of *left* in ordinary speech, we are referring to that side of the body, and to the *right* hemisphere of the brain.

Both the structure and the function of these two "half-brains" in some part underlie the two modes of consciousness which simultaneously coexist within each one of us. Although each hemisphere shares the potential for many functions, and both sides participate in most activities, in the normal person the two hemispheres tend to specialize. The left hemisphere (connected to the right side of the

body) is predominantly involved with analytic, logical thinking, especially in verbal and mathematical functions. Its mode of operation is primarily linear. This hemisphere seems to process information sequentially. This mode of operation of necessity must underlie logical thought, since logic depends on sequence and order. Language and mathematics, both left-hemisphere activities, also depend predominantly on linear time.

If the left hemisphere is specialized for analysis, the right hemisphere (again, remember, connected to the left side of the body) seems specialized for holistic mentation. Its language ability is quite limited. This hemisphere is primarily responsible for our orientation in space, artistic endeavor, crafts, body image, recognition of faces. It processes information more diffusely than does the left hemisphere, and its responsibilities demand a ready integration of many inputs at once. If the left hemisphere can be termed predominantly analytic and sequential in its operation, then the right hemisphere is more holistic and relational, and more simultaneous in its mode of operation. (pp. 67, 68)

Neurological evidence has been accumulating which supports the concept of hemispheric specialization. However, much of the evidence has come from individuals who are brain-damaged or whose corpus collosum has been surgically split.

Galin (1977) and Gazzaniga (1973) have indicated that observations of "split brain" individuals reinforces the notion that each of the hemispheres of the brain has specialized functions in that each hemisphere appears to function independently when the corpus collosum is severed.

Ornstein and Galin (1977) attempted to extend these studies to include normal people. The aim was to discover if normal people engaged in ordinary cognitive tasks would make use of lateral specialization and if so what was the nature

of that specialization? They hypothesized that by recording the EEG of both hemispheres of a normal individual working at a cognitive task, they expected to see signs of selective activation and suppression of the hemispheres.

It was found that while individuals performed the verbal task of writing a letter (supposedly a left hemisphere task), there was a large amount of EEG activity of the left hemisphere and much less over the right. The opposite occurred when they were asked to perform the task of arranging a set of coloured blocks to match a given pattern (presumably a right hemisphere task).

They interpreted this to mean that, for certain types of cognitive tasks, one hemisphere is activated while the other is relatively suppressed.

In conclusion, Ornstein and Galin (1977) indicate a number of possible implications that their research could have for definitions of intelligence and education.

Galín and Ornstein (1977) state that

An individual's preferred cognitive style may facilitate his learning of one type of subject matter, e.g., spatial-relational and hamper another type, e.g., verbal-analytic. A student's difficulty with one part of the curriculum may arise from his inability to change to the cognitive mode appropriate to the work he is doing. (p. 64, 65)

The major implication is a recognition of the importance of both modes of brain functioning in understanding and experiencing the world. A humanistic orientation to education attempts to do this by emphasizing a wholistic approach to human learning rather than an almost

exclusively cognitive approach. Equal attention is given to the role of cognition, sensation and affect in human learning.

Although there are programs which emphasize the right hemispheric functioning (i.e. art, drama, music), they are still considered secondary to those associated with left hemispheric functioning (mathematics and language arts).

It is interesting to note that in traditional literature on neurophysiology and neuropsychology, the left hemisphere is labelled major, while the right hemisphere is labelled minor.

Perhaps it is time for researchers and educators to recognize that both hemispheres are important in educating the whole person (an ideal that both traditional and humanistic educators support). Activities and experiences which appear to involve both sides of the brain need to be equally emphasized if education is to prepare persons for optimal functioning.

D. The Affective Component in Learning

As has been previously stated, North American educational systems primarily focuses on learning as cognitive development in the form of acquisition of curriculum content or the development of basic skills.

Weinstein and Fantini (1975) maintain that the operational definition of learning utilized by most educational systems is actually a cognitive definition. They

state that "the classical notion of learning as a 'change of behavior' is commonly interpreted...to mean a change in cognitive behavior, measured by paper and pencil tests and verbalization" (p. 108).

If one accepts the above definition of learning, there is very little need to assess or question the practices or methods utilized present in the North American educational systems. However, if one examines some humanistic learning theories, other approaches to human learning become apparent.

Arthur Combs and Donald Snygg (1959) define learning as a process which has two parts:

- (a) A confrontation with new information or experience and

- (b) The learner's personal discovery of that meaning.

The learner's emotional involvement within the learning situation is implicit in their definition.

Bloom (1974) maintains that affective entry characteristics play an important role in the extent to which an individual "will put forth the necessary effort to learn the learning task" (p. 104).

Wolfe Mays (1980), in a critique of the affective component in Piagetian theory points out that:

Piaget therefore believes that there is a constant interaction between our affective life and the elements in the cognitive realm. He notes that two possible types of such interaction have been postulated. It has been argued: (1) that feeling and emotion are at the root of all our thinking and consequently knowledge---Vico and Freud have been proponents of such a view; (2) that Piaget himself

asserts that affectivity enters into intellectual operations by accelerating, stimulating or distorting them... (p. 37)

Rogers (1977) maintains that learning is wholistic and includes a cognitive element, a feeling component and is experiential in nature. He further notes that "in its purest forms, this occurs rarely but perhaps learning experiences can still be judged by their closeness or remoteness to this general definition" (p. 40).

The preceeding examples recognize some degree of interaction between cognition and affect in the learning process.

The humanistic orientation to learning then, is one which believes in the interaction between cognition and affect. That a student needs to be "affectively ready for a learning task and also has an emotional reaction, be it positive or negative, to the learning task, are also important aspects of this orientation to learning" (Brown, Phillips & Shapiro, 1976).

However, there are learning theories which tend to treat cognition and affect as two distinct entities, or ignore the role of affect (e.g., Operant Conditioning, Information Processing). Uncritical adherence to these theories fosters the beliefs and practices which tend to emphasize cognition over affect in the school setting. As Weinstein and Fantini (1977) state, "the educational system does not foster harmony between affect and cognition: it usually emphasizes cognition at the expense of the affect"

(p. 107).

An educational system (as opposed to individual classroom teachers) which recognizes that an individual's feelings play an important role in learning may be considered as more humane, in that the whole person is being attended to.

To implement widespread educational practices based on a humanistic orientation to learning may be difficult. Ferguson (1981) asserts that most educational alternatives have offered only a pendulum change (i.e. discipline in 'fundamentalist' schools versus affective emotional values in the 'free' schools). She maintains that a paradigm shift (a new way of looking at learning) is necessary. (See Appendix B).

Rogers (1976) also advocates a paradigm shift when he compares and contrasts assumptions in current North American education with a humanistic orientation to learning (see Appendix C).

If a goal of an educational system is to educate the whole persons and prepare them for a future place in society, then perhaps it is important to recognize and understand the role that the affective component has in learning. However, to do so, as indicated by Rogers (1976) and Ferguson (1981) may require a paradigm shift and an examination of the assumptions on which current educational practices are based rather than another superficial change.

E. Summary

This chapter began with a discussion of three reasons why it is important to look at alternative ways of preparing and educating children for an uncertain future.

An outline of industrial and post-industrial education focussed upon the historical roots of current educational practices and suggested the need to assess the implicit assumptions of current educational practice in the light of today's changing world.

A selective review of research literature on hemispheric specialization suggested that a traditional cognitive orientation to schooling tends to neglect vital components of human functioning (sensation and affect). The extension of educational practices to include activities which develop both sides of the brain equally seems a wise course to follow.

The chapter concludes with a discussion of traditional and humanistic orientations to learning. In order to meet current goals of education, the conception of human learning may need to be expanded to develop a more wholistic paradigm of learning.

II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

A. Humanistic Psychology

The Emergence of Humanistic Psychology

Humanistic psychology emerged in the 1960's as a result of criticisms levelled at the two extant schools of psychology, (Behaviorism and Psychoanalysis).

Behaviorism was criticized for its preoccupation with objectivity and the quantification of behavior for the purposes of prediction and control (Hamachek, 1975). Some psychologists (e.g., Maslow, Rogers) object to the assumption that a person's behavior is completely determined by forces outside of himself/herself. Deterministic psychology tends to de-emphasize or negate what a person thinks or feels. Floyd Matson (1971) points out that

...I know of no greater disrespect for the human subject than to treat him as an object--unless it is to demean that object further by fragmenting it into drives, traits, reflexes and other mechanical hardware (p. 44).

The central complaint of humanists (similar to that of the Gestaltists) was that a human being is more than the sum of his/her parts. Consequently, by studying parts, psychology loses that which makes a person human.

Psychoanalysis was criticized for its emphasis on psychic determinism. Matson (1971) states that

Freud's determinism was not environmental, like that of Watson, but psychogenetic; nevertheless, it was determinism and it left little room for spontaneity, creativity, rationality or

responsibility (p. 48).

In a review of the common criticisms frequently levelled at psychoanalytic theory, Hamachek (1975) lists the following:

1. The theory was generated out of a preoccupation with the pathology of abnormal people.
2. The theory may overemphasize the breadth and depth of unconscious processes in behavior.
3. The theory was established on the basis of emotional disturbances among middle class people in Vienna over half a century ago.
4. Although, as suggested by the theory, man can be characterized by his aggressive nature, studies of different cultures have shown that there are many peoples who, as a group, are friendly and kind. (p. 11)

Although there is sometimes a tendency to oversimplify the characterizations of Behaviorism and Psychoanalysis, it is the aforementioned aspects of the above theories which have evoked criticism and culminated in a third force called humanistic psychology.

What Is Humanistic Psychology?

Unlike Behaviorism or Psychoanalysis, humanistic psychology is not a single body of theory, but rather a combination of philosophies and schools of thought to which many divergent thinkers and writers have contributed. The contribution of the philosophy of existentialism and the method of phenomenology to the development of humanistic psychology are to be examined in the next section. Finally, a summary of major concepts, extracted from the theories of Carl Rogers, Abraham Maslow, and Arthur Combs will be

outlined.

Existentialism and Phenomenology

Existentialism, which began as a formal movement in philosophy in the twentieth century, stresses an individual's personal responsibility for his/her life. This responsibility ultimately involves the freedom to choose among alternatives in behavior. That humans are choosing, free, responsible agents who have not only consciousness but self-consciousness is a basic tenet of Existentialism (Hamachek, 1975).

Phenomenology is generally considered to have preceded Existentialism, with credit for the original development usually given to Husserl (Shaffer, 1978). Central emphases are upon personal perception and subjectivity. Reality lies not in the event or phenomena, but in each individual's experiences and perceptions.

The Existentialist emphasis upon personal choice, freedom and responsibility and the phenomenologist concern with personal meaning, perceptions and subjective experiences have greatly contributed to the conceptual development of humanistic psychology.

Major Principles of Humanistic Psychology

Humanistic Psychology is a composite of a number of philosophical positions and psychological theories that coalesced in the nineteen sixties as a result of the

human-potential movement. Maslow, Rogers and Combs have made significant contributions to the development of the humanistic position and although their theories differ, a number of common themes can be identified. Shaffer (1978) has concisely organized these themes into five interrelated and interdependent principles:

1. Humanism is strongly phenomenological or experiential: its starting point is conscious experience
 - a. each person has a right to his/her own unique feelings
 - b. subjective experience is important
2. Humanistic psychology insists on man's wholeness and integrity
 - a. self-actualization is a process whereby human beings attempt to realize some of their unfulfilled potential
 - b. human beings have an essential core or being that integrates their seemingly isolated traits into a unique patterned whole
 - c. body and mind are unified whole
3. Humanistic Psychology, while acknowledging that there are clear-cut limits inherent in human existence, insists that human beings retain an essential freedom and autonomy
 - a. we do have a certain degree of free will; our lives are not completely determined by the combination of innate endowment and significant environmental influences
4. Humanistic Psychology is anti-reductionistic in its orientation
 - a. conscious experiences need not be reduced to basic drives and defenses, as in psychoanalysis, or to mere epiphenomena, as in behaviorism
5. Humanistic Psychology, consistent with its strong roots in existentialism, believes that human nature can never be fully defined
 - a. the human personality is infinitely

expandable, and this emphasis on all possibilities ties in with man's striving for self-actualization. pp. 10-17)

B. Humanistic Education

Humanistic education, like humanistic psychology, is a composite of a number of theories and perspectives to which Maslow, Rogers and Combs have made significant contributions. They share a similar world view, a similar belief about the nature of man and a similar belief about the importance of establishing personal meaning. Their contributions have led to the development of a humanistic model of education.

Major Theorists

Abraham Maslow

Biehler (1978) notes that as a result of his observations of children, Maslow concluded that "...healthy children seek fulfilling experiences and if they are given free choice they will choose what is good for them" (p. 334). Children and adults are motivated by self-actualizing tendencies, and Maslow (1971) maintains that the goal or function of education is to develop this self-actualizing potential by focusing on intrinsic, rather than extrinsic, learning. *Intrinsic* learning involves the discovery of a person's unique potential and the search for personal meaning. It is self-directed and self-evaluated. In

contrast, *Extrinsic* learning is defined as the learning of associations, skills and culturally defined responses that lie outside the realm of personal meaning. It is often teacher-directed and teacher-evaluated and often ignores the learner.

A cornerstone of Maslow's theory is his conceptualization of the hierarchy of needs. Before intrinsic learning can take place or self-actualization proceed, lower-order needs must first be fulfilled. Steeves (1980) notes that

Self actualization is a dynamic struggle between safety and growth needs. All choices between these two poles are right and occur spontaneously as a consequence of natural wisdom. Growth can be promoted by enhancing its attractions and minimizing its dangers and minimizing the attractions of security needs. There is a natural need to know ourselves as well as a fear of self-knowledge which is at the centre of self-actualization. (p. 16).

Carl Rogers

Rogers (1969) maintains that the goal of education should be facilitation of change and learning. He believes that one is educated only if one knows how to learn, how to adapt and change, if one realizes that knowledge is a function of the process of seeking meaning, rather than an object in itself.

The facilitation of this goal occurs when the teacher possesses the necessary qualities and attitudes to establish a personal relationship with the learner. These qualities include genuineness, acceptance by the facilitator, a prizing of the learner's feelings and unique individuality,

and empathic understanding of the student's reactions to the process of learning. These qualities, in combination, establish the climate necessary for self-initiated, experiential learning.

Rogers (1975) also observes that learning, involving the whole person, only occurs when there is a blend of the cognitive, affective and experiential elements, with a clear awareness of each by the learner.

Arthur Combs

Combs (1959) sees the goal of education as the production of adequate, intelligent people. Combs purposely leaves the definition broad because he believes that "to decide today in too specific terms what the children of tomorrow should be is to run the risk of preparing them for a world that does not exist" (p. 366).

He defines adequacy and intelligence in perceptual terms.

The adequate personality is one who:

1. perceives himself in essentially positive ways
2. is open to his experience or capable of accepting self and others
3. is strongly and broadly identified with others.

Intelligent behavior is the product of perceptual fields that are:

1. rich
2. extensive
3. maximally available when needed. (p. 366)

In order to achieve these ends, teaching becomes the facilitation of meaning. It is only through the discovery of

personal meaning from information and events that learning and behavioral changes occur.

For Combs, this can also be described as a continuing differentiation of the humanistic person's phenomenological experience. Humanistic teachers value self-awareness, attempt to accept the feelings of others, attempt to facilitate the growth of a positive self-concept in students, and believe that students are capable of learning.

C. Common Humanistic Concepts

Goals of Education

The major purpose of humanistic education is the self-actualization of the person. Humanistic education attempts to facilitate the extraction of personal meaning from lived-experiences. This is done by encouraging and fostering the personal feelings, beliefs and attitudes of students. Each person is considered as unique. Environmental modifications are designed to lessen anxiety and encourage growth through personal experience.

Learning

The emphasis in learning is on the process, not the product. Thus, learning is more than a set of connections or associations that are externally reinforced through praise or grades. Learning how to learn, or how to discover personal meaning is the essence of the humanistic position.

This can only be done when the affective, as well as the cognitive domains of learning are attended to. (See Chapter I for more details.)

The distinction between cognitive and experiential learning is important for humanistic educators. Cognitive learning involves the acquisition of a body of knowledge or the fixing of associations which may have little personal meaning to the learner, whereas experiential learning is self-initiated, self-evaluated, has a quality of personal involvement and its essence is meaning.

The Role of the Teacher

Because humanistic education stresses the development of individual potential and the discovery of meaning from personal experiences, the teacher's role becomes one of facilitator rather than director. Facilitative teachers are aware of their own values and belief systems, possess positive self-concepts and are authentic and genuine (Combs & Snygg, 1959; Gage & Berliner, 1979). Because of these traits, they allow and encourage students to explore their own potential and tend to be less controlling than more authoritarian teachers.

The Role of the Student

Rather than being a passive recipient of instructions and information, the student becomes an active participant in his/her own learning. Within limits, and depending upon

the age of the child, the student sets goals for himself/herself, exchanges ideas with others, finds or develops appropriate materials, and most importantly, learns to evaluate himself/herself. Evaluation involves much more than just academic achievement in the form of grades. It involves assessment of feelings, attitudes and behaviors that occurred from the work as well as looking at the final product.

The Importance of Affect

A major distinction between humanistic education and other approaches to education is recognition of the importance of the affective component in the educational process. The uniqueness of each person's feelings, and the fundamental influence of emotion upon behavior are key aspects of humanistic education. The wholistic humanistic approach emphasizes the integration of affect and cognition.

D. Review of the Literature

A review of the literature has revealed that the humanistic area can be divided into three broad categories which include: humanistic education, open education and affective developmental programs. In terms of operational definitions, there are some major differences and distinctions.

Humanistic education, as previously indicated, has a particular philosophical orientation which addresses

cognitive and affective development equally. Open education has a similar philosophical orientation to humanistic education, however, its primary emphasis is on cognitive and social development with little, if any, attention paid to the affective areas.

Affective developmental programs are generally preventative mental health programs which concentrate upon affective development either through structured learning experiences (e.g., magic circle), group processes or a combination of both.

Since this investigation is concerned with humanistic education, only those studies and articles relevant to this area will be reviewed. Articles dealing with open education or affective developmental programs will not be addressed.

Facilitating Humanistic Goals

The goal of humanistic education is twofold:

- (a) the development of the unique potential of each individual learner and
- (b) the development of students who are capable of extracting personal meaning from information and personal experiences.

The research literature suggests that teachers who can create a facilitative humanistic learning environment have particular characteristics, beliefs, and a particular orientation value. Each of these will be discussed in turn.

Teacher Characteristics

(i) *The Teacher as a Facilitator*

The humanistic teacher is one who is capable of establishing facilitative relationships. Jensen (1973) suggests that, to establish such relationships, the teacher must step out of his/her central and controlling classroom position. Tjosvold (1976) critically reviewed educational and social-psychological literature to clarify the impact of schools' control orientation on student learning and on the student-teacher relationship. He concluded that:

(a) a strong control orientation is incompatible with helping students become responsible young adults, (b) the methods of increasing teacher power and status, and decidedly unequal teacher-student relationships adversely affect student learning and the teacher-student relationship, and (c) teacher and student collaborative use of their resources, increased student participation in decision making, and enhanced student status and power may facilitate student learning and development.
(abstract)

Smith (1977) asserts that the teacher who establishes a relationship of mutual openness and trust with students enables them to set their own goals and realize their full human potential. Rogers (1974) contends that there are certain conditions necessary for the establishment of facilitative, open relationships: a sense of realness in the facilitator of learning; a degree of prizing, acceptance and trust; and empathic understanding. Studies by Aspy and Roebuck (1974) support Rogers' contention that empathy, congruence and valuing the student are factors significantly related to learning. In 1974, they conducted a study in which 3700 classroom hours were recorded in five hundred and

fifty elementary schools. The study concluded that in classrooms with facilitative teachers (i.e. person-centered classrooms) students exhibited more positive self-concepts, made greater gains in learning conventional subjects, were better at higher cognitive processes (e.g., problem-solving), initiated more behavior, had lower absenteeism and less discipline problems. There is, however, controversy within the literature which suggests that, although these conditions are necessary, they may not be sufficient to ensure either the facilitation of relationships or learning. Rogers further suggests that it is only when the three conditions or attitudes in the teacher are perceived by the student that a facilitative relationship can occur.

(ii) *The Teacher as a Reflective Person*

Branch (1978) suggests that humanistic teachers need to be analytical about their teaching and open to new knowledge and experiences. Brown (1974) asserts that if teachers are to facilitate affective learning, then it is important to examine the assumptions concerning human nature on which they are operating in the classroom. Rogers (1974) indicates that the humanistic educator needs to reflect upon seven questions:

1. What is it like to be a child learning something significant?
2. Can I risk myself in the teaching relationship?
3. What are the interests, goals and passions of my students?

4. How can I unleash creativity?
5. How can I provide the resources necessary for learning?
6. Can I tolerate creativity?
7. Can I help the student develop a feeling for life as well as a cognitive one? (pp. 134-139)

By asking these questions, the teacher will have a clearer awareness of his/her own values and orientation and of the direction necessary to develop a humanistic classroom.

(iii) *The Teacher as a Growing, Learning Person*

If the teacher is to set the climate which allows for development of individual potential and personal growth, then it would be necessary for the teacher to both believe in self-actualization and be a growing, learning person. Gage and Berliner (1979) suggest that the ability to be a learner is an essential characteristic in developing a humanistic classroom. Kovacs (1979) notes that the style of teaching inspired by the phenomenological or humanistic orientation is dependent upon a belief in the actualizing forces of the human person.

Richards (1978) writes that the humanistic educator is a person, not a concept, and that in order to be a humanistic teacher, one must be a growing person experiencing all aspects of oneself. In a review of the literature and research on affective teaching, Khan and Weiss (1973) noted that teachers who are self-actualizing or high on social values are perceived by students as more concerned, caring and effective.

(iv) *The Teacher as an Adequate Person*

To create a humanistic learning environment, the teacher must have a positive self-concept (Combs, 1975; Kash & Borich, 1978). Branch (1978) suggests the faculty of a humanistic school should consist of individuals who perceive themselves and their students as valuable, capable and responsible.

Studies by Combs (cited in Kash & Borich, 1978) suggest that effective helpers have a different perceptual "set" than ineffective helpers. He observed perceptual differences between the two groups in four major categories:

1. General Perceptual Organization

- a. Is the individual interested in people or things?
- b. Does he look at people from the outside or does he try to see the world as they see it?
- c. Does he look for reasons people behave as they do here and now, or does he try to find historical reasons for behavior?

2. Perceptions of Other People

- a. Does he see people as generally able or unable to do things?
- b. Friendly or unfriendly?
- c. Worthy or unworthy?
- d. Dependable or undependable?

3. Perceptions of Self

- a. Does he see himself as with people or apart from them?
- b. As able or unable?
- c. Dependable or undependable?
- d. Worthy or unworthy?
- e. Wanted or unwanted?

4. Perceptions of the Professional Task

- a. Does he see his job as one of freeing people or controlling them?
- b. Does he see his role as one of revealing or

- c. concealing?
- c. Being involved or uninvolved?
- d. Encouraging process or achieving goals? (pp. 46, 47)

Each of the above categories reveals a positive/negative dichotomy of perceptual differences. Combs found that "effective" helpers fell on the positive side. Further to that, teachers identified as effective helpers were found to have positive, realistic self-concepts.

(vi) *Beliefs of the Humanistic Teacher*

Although not directly listed in the literature, it is possible to abstract a set of beliefs that characterize the humanistically oriented teacher:

To some degree, they would believe that:

- every individual has unique potential to be developed
- people are worthwhile and deserving of respect
- feelings are important (emotional experiences are as valued as intellectual experiences)
- personal growth and self-awareness is a worthy goal
- relationships are important
- learning is an endeavor which encompasses the whole being
- people have choices to explore and a free will with which to do so
- individuals have their own unique perceptions
- the search for personal meaning is a valid goal

E. Purpose of the Study

It has been suggested that humanistic education is not so much a set of techniques but rather an orientation which evolves from an individual's attitudes, beliefs, values and assumptions about mankind and education. In a review of literature on humanistic psychology, Rossiter (1976) concluded that it is the teacher's orientation, rather than any specific technique, which is the significant determinant of whether the classroom will have a humanistic orientation. He also suggested that the reason why research results involving humanistic classroom techniques are equivocal is that it is often the techniques, rather than teacher's orientation, that is studied.

Kash and Borich (1978) further suggest that the humanistic position is not adequately represented in educational research and that "this situation is complicated by the fact that we have no process of affective research or for communicating the results" (p. 6). Since the area of humanistic education is so broad, most research is still in the process of discovering the nature of the subject itself. The above statements, in combination with the realization that the beliefs and values of humanistically oriented teachers have not been directly addressed within the literature, form the basis for the purpose of this study.

The purpose of this study is three-fold:

1. The first purpose is to investigate the beliefs, values and classroom management techniques of future teachers.

2. The second purpose is to explore those factors (beliefs, values) which differentiate humanistically oriented teachers from more traditionally oriented teachers.
3. The third purpose is to identify differences between students in the various teaching programs regarding their orientation and practices.

III. METHOD

A. Subjects

The subjects consisted of eighty randomly selected fourth-year education students from the University of Alberta. There were fifty-two females (54%), and eighteen males (26%). Twenty-five (36%) were in the secondary program, thirty-two (46%) were in elementary program, four (6%) in the vocational program and nine (13%) were in the special education program. Subjects participated in this study from February, 1981 to March, 1981.

B. Development of the Questionnaire

After an investigation of available value and attitude inventories, it was concluded that none addressed the essential components of humanistic education. Most importantly, the affective component, which is a major discriminator between the humanistic model and more traditional models of education, was not included in the questionnaires examined.

It was decided to develop a questionnaire which surveyed five general areas. These included: demographic variables, an affective background or history, educational values and attitudes as they related to humanistic concepts, classroom management techniques utilized, and exposure to humanistic concepts and experiences at the university level. (See Appendix D for a more detailed description.)

After an in-depth study of the literature, items were constructed, written on 2" x 4" cards and placed in the appropriate categories. Various individuals were asked to respond to the items. Some items were then eliminated due to lack of discrimination, poor wording or poor conceptualization.

The questionnaire was completed and field-tested on ten individuals in the fields of teaching and psychology.

It was then rewritten, eliminating and adding questions, and administered to the subjects.

C. Procedure for Data Collection

Each student selected for the study was contacted by telephone, at which time an explanation of the major purpose of the study was given and a request for their participation was made. Students were given the choice of either arranging for a personal testing session at their convenience or having the questionnaire mailed to them with a self-addressed, stamped envelope enclosed. Of the original eighty students who were approached, seventy-five consented to participate and five declined, due to work pressures. Five replacements were then randomly selected to make up the sample of eighty.

Individual testing sessions were arranged with sixty-nine of the students twenty-one requested that the form be mailed, due to student teaching conflicts at that time.

of the sixty-nine students, sixty-seven eventually had their personal interview session, making up a return rate of seventy.

Each of the no-shows and no-returns were re-contacted a minimum of two times each by telephone. When they still neither showed nor returned the questionnaire, they were re-contacted a third time and questioned as to their reasons for not participating. One individual did not believe in humanistic education, one lost his questionnaire and the remaining individuals indicated that they did not have time to participate.

Because it was the end of the university term and subjects were hard to obtain, it was decided to proceed with a sample of seventy subjects.

D. Assumptions

It is assumed that humanistic education is an important educational alternative for these changing times and that it has not been given due consideration in either the literature or in practice.

It is assumed that the sampling procedure was adequate to provide for reliable findings.

Interview bias is assumed to be minimal.

It is assumed that a self-report instrument is an acceptable method for generating information.

IV. RESULTS

A. General Frequency Data

Table 1 shows the frequency of subjects' responses to the five levels of agreement/disagreement on forty-four Likert scale items dealing with affective experiences: at school, with parents, in childhood, and in adulthood. The last set of items deals with educational values. In order to simplify presentation and interpretation, the data is combined for the two levels of agreement/disagreement on either side of the scale median. The two categories which are summed are shown in parentheses in order of their spatial location on the scale with a right side indicating directionality towards strong agreement. The frequency of item responses will be presented in meaningful clusters for the convenience of the reader.

B. Affective Experiences at School

This section examines subjects' experiences with feelings and emotions within the context of teacher relationships (items 1 - 6). Items 1, 3, 5 and 6 suggest that students had fairly positive affective experiences at school. Sixty-nine percent (33,36) liked most of their teachers (item 3) and 79% (34,44) felt that their teachers liked them (item 6). Seventy-four (24,50) percent believed that teachers' opinions of them were accurate (item 5) and a modest majority (54%) (7,47) felt that teachers showed

TABLE 1
FREQUENCY RESPONSES TO LIKERT SCALE
ITEMS DEALING WITH AFFECTIVE EXPERIENCES
AND EDUCATIONAL VALUES

Question	M	SD	NR	Response					Category	Percentage				
				1	2	3	4	5		1	2	3	4	5
1	2.6	0.9	0	7	47	27	17	1						
2	2.5	1.0	0	19	34	30	17	0						
3	2.1	0.9	0	33	36	23	9	0						
4	3.2	1.0	0	3	24	31	36	6						
5	2.1	0.9	0	24	50	20	1	4						
6	4.1	1.1	0	4	6	11	34	44						
7	2.5	1.2	0	26	31	20	17	6						
8	2.4	1.2	0	26	30	24	16	4						
9	2.6	1.4	0	34	21	9	26	10						
10	3.5	1.2	1	6	14	23	33	23						
11	3.9	1.0	1	1	9	19	40	30						
12	4.0	0.8	0	0	6	16	53	26						
13	3.1	1.1	1	9	19	33	27	11						
14	2.1	0.7	0	14	64	16	6	0						
15	2.8	1.2	0	17	23	26	27	7						
16	2.9	1.0	0	4	37	31	20	7						
17	1.8	0.8	0	46	36	14	4	0						
18	2.6	0.9	0	10	37	37	13	3						
19	3.8	1.0	0	3	9	19	49	21						
20	2.8	1.1	0	13	29	33	20	6						
21	3.9	1.0	0	1	10	17	43	29						
22	3.2	0.8	0	4	9	50	33	4						
23	4.1	0.9	1	0	7	14	41	36						
24	2.6	1.1	0	16	34	27	20	3						

(Continued...)

TABLE 1 (Continued)
 FREQUENCY RESPONSES TO LIKERT SCALE
 ITEMS DEALING WITH AFFECTIVE EXPERIENCES
 AND EDUCATIONAL VALUES

Question	M	SD	NR	Response			Category	Percentage		
				1	2	3		4	5	
25	1.9	0.8	0	29	53	14		4	0	
26	3.6	1.3	1	11	6	26		24	31	
27	1.2	0.5	0	83	13	4		0	0	
28	2.3	0.8	0	19	37	40		4	0	
29	2.2	1.1	0	33	34	16		14	3	
30	4.4	1.2	0	7	3	4		13	73	
31	2.9	1.1	0	10	24	37		21	7	
32	2.3	1.1	0	20	47	17		11	4	
33	3.6	1.0	0	3	11	26		39	21	
34	1.5	1.0	0	74	16	4		1	4	
35	2.4	0.8	0	14	39	40		7	0	
36	2.6	1.0	0	11	37	33		14	4	
37	2.0	1.0	0	36	36	19		9	1	
38	3.4	0.9	0	3	9	43		34	11	
39	1.5	0.9	0	70	23	1		3	3	
40	3.3	1.1	0	6	19	30		30	16	
41	3.7	1.0	0	4	9	24		41	20	
42	1.7	0.9	0	46	40	10		3	1	
43	4.4	1.0	0	3	7	3		20	67	
44	3.0	1.0	1	7	21	44		20	6	

Note: Number of Respondents: 70

sensitivity to students' feelings (item 1).

Responses to item 4 were equivocal. Students apparently perceived a wide range of teachers displaying or not displaying emotions. This may be explained in part by the response to item 2 which indicates that few teachers (17%) spoke to their students about feelings/emotions.

C. Affective Modelling of Parents

Items 7 and 8 explore respondents' experiences with expressing emotions in terms of their experience with their parental models. In emotional circumstances, 57% (26,81) of the parents would express their emotions (item 7). Fifty-six percent (26,30) of the parents believed that showing feelings/emotions was desirable (item 8). These items suggest that a modest majority of respondents had parents who believed in expressing emotions and did so under certain circumstances. The corollary of this is that many parents did not express their emotions and possibly advocated control versus open expression. Item 12, which indicates that 79% (53,26) of the students try to be calm and collected at all times adds some substance to this assertion.

D. Affective Experiences in Childhood

Items 9, 10 and 11 explore expression of emotions in childhood. Responses to item 9 were equivocal, possibly indicating a wide range of experience in expressing or

hiding emotions or an inability to remember their reactions as children. Fifty-six percent (33,23), of the students seldom felt sad as children (item 10) and 70% (40,30) of the students often felt happy as children (item 11).

The data suggests that the students appear to be happy children. It is possible that either the students cannot remember their childhood clearly or that they are repressing their awareness of childhood experiences. The data needs to be interpreted with the information in the next section which suggests that the respondents see themselves as highly self-aware individuals who are in control of their thoughts and feelings most of the time.

E. Adulthood Experiences

Items 12 to 19 explore students' awareness of self, and awareness of feelings as an adult, while items 20 to 23 explore students' ability to distinguish between what they think and what they feel.

Items 14, 17 and 19 suggest that students perceive themselves as being self-aware and know themselves. In item 14, 78% (14,64) of the students claim that they know themselves thoroughly. Eighty-two percent (46,36) of the students claim that, most of the time, they know what they are feeling from moment to moment (item 17), while seventy percent (49,21) of the respondents claim to be aware of what their body is doing from moment to moment (item 19).

Responses to items 12, 21 and 23 suggest a strong control orientation. Seventy-nine percent (53,26) of the students try to be calm and collected at all times (item 12). Seventy-two percent (43,29) of the students claim that, most of the time, they are able to control their emotions/feelings (item 21), while 77% (41,36) of the respondents indicated that most of the time, they are able to control their thoughts (item 23).

Responses to items 13, 15, 16, 20, 22 tended to be either equivocal in nature or have large median responses suggesting uncertainty.

For example, students' responses were equivocal as to whether they enjoyed planning an activity more than actually doing it (item 15). Thirty-three percent were unsure whether they hid or expressed negative feelings (item 13), while 31% were unsure if they could accept confusing situations with ease or difficulty (item 16). Thirty-three percent were not sure if they tended to feel things rather than think about things (item 20), while 50% were undecided if what they think about things is more important than what they feel about things (item 22).

The uncertainty and equivocation of these items suggests that the validity of the responses to earlier items dealing with awareness and control may be questionable. The responses to the first two clusters of items suggest that the students see themselves as self-aware individuals who are able to control their thoughts and emotions most of the

time.

It is possible that the reverse may be true and that their perceptions of their experiences are inaccurate. Behavioral literature has asserted that much human behavior is reactive and unconscious. Osborne and Baldwin (1982) point to the discontinuity of consciousness and that

The consequence of this very unpalatable fact is that we are not aware of ourselves or what we are doing almost all of the time... (p. 268).

They refer the doubting reader to the *Greenspoon Effect* (Greenspoon, 1955). Eastern teachings such as Buddhism, Gurdjieffian ideas, and Taoism support the notion that most individuals are not only unaware but that they are unaware of their lack of awareness. Techniques of self observation, which eventually point to an individual's lack of awareness (both sensory and cognitive) are advocated not only by Eastern philosophers but western psychologists such as Perls and Lowen.

Nesbitt and Wilson (1977) suggest,

that subjects in certain social psychology experiments were generally not conscious of their cognitive processes.... the willingness of subjects to offer explanations of their cognitive processes...could be interpreted as indicative of how unaware most people are of their lack of awareness. (p. 281).

It may be possible that the equivocation and confusion on the last set of items is a more valid indicator of the validity of the subjects' self-perceptions than the previous clusters of items relating to self-awareness and self-control.

F. Educational Values

Items 24 to 44 explore individual's educational beliefs and values. Items were derived from concepts found within the humanistic model of education. Items from more traditional models of education were also included in order to facilitate comparison.

Items 25, 33, 34 and 43 deal with the importance of affect and the expression of emotions. Eighty-two percent (29,53) of the students believed that, when dealing with students, teachers should express their emotions (item 25) and they strongly agreed (90%) (74,16) that it is important to show sensitivity to the feelings of others (item 34). Sixty percent (39,21) of the students agreed that the classroom is an appropriate place to express emotions (item 33) and respondents strongly agreed (87%) (20,67) that children's feelings are important (item 43). Responses to these items suggest that, at least intellectually, respondents are sympathetic to the importance of feelings and the expression of emotions within the classroom setting. However, few students (29%) take workshops dealing with the expression of emotions (item 72).

Items 26, 27, 30, 32, 37, 39, 41 and 42 pertain to the goals and values of humanistic education. Students strongly agreed (86%) (20,47) that enjoying being with children is a prerequisite for successful teaching (item 30) and (54%) (24,31) that teachers should help students to learn to ask questions (item 26).

Respondents disagreed (67%) (20,47) that mastery of information is the most important part of school (item 32) and students strongly agreed (86%) (46,40) that experiential learning is more important than lecture-based learning (item 42). They also agreed (61%) (41,20) that fantasy experiences can be a valuable means of learning (item 41). Seventy-two percent (36,36) of the students agreed that the classroom is a place to teach values (item 37) and students strongly agreed (93%) (70,23) that self-understanding is an important goal of education (item 39). Respondents very strongly agreed (96%) (83,13) that it is important for students to receive instruction in communication skills (item 27).

Responses to these items suggest that students are, at least intellectually, strongly sympathetic to the goals and values of the humanistic model of education.

Items 24, 31, 35, 38, 40, and 44 address the theoretical and philosophical underpinnings of the humanistic model. It is interesting to note that on five of the six items, a fair percentage of the responses were median responses suggesting some uncertainty on the part of respondents. For example, 37% of respondents were uncertain as to whether it was possible to separate intellectual experience from emotional experience (item 31). Forty percent of the students were unsure if logic is more important than feeling (item 35), while 43% could not decide if intuition is a valid form of learning (item 38). Forty-four percent of respondents were undecided as to

whether the school should concentrate on developing the intellect (item 44), while 30% were not sure if formal classroom tests were essential for accurate assessment of student performance (item 40). On item 24, 54% of respondents believed that measurement, prediction and control of human behavior is essential, while 27% were undecided. These responses are incompatible with the humanistic position. Although students had fairly strong opinions about questions on the value of affective educational goals, a fair percentage were uncertain in their responses to the questions which tap understanding of the foundation of the humanistic model. This uncertainty suggests a lack of deep reflection on fundamental philosophical and pedagogical issues and may suggest an uncritical superficial acceptance of humanistic beliefs and techniques. These results may also suggest that courses dealing with the humanistic model are superficially presented and perhaps too technique oriented with insufficient attention to deep thinking and values. Students also lack the teaching experiences which might help them to integrate theoretical and practical issues.

G. Experiences with Emotions

Table 2 shows the pattern of responses for items 45-62. These items are categorical rather than the *Likert* type items found in the previous section. (See Appendix A for items and number of categories.) These items were intended

TABLE 2
FREQUENCY OF RESPONSES TO ITEMS
DEALING WITH EMOTIONS AND FEELINGS

Question	M	SD	Response			Category			Percentage		
			NR	1	2	1	2	3	1	2	3
46	2.0	0.1	0	1		1			99		
47	1.2	0.4	0	76		76			24		
48	1.9	0.2	0	6		6			94		
49	1.9	0.3	0	7		7			93		
50	1.9	0.3	0	10		10			90		
51	1.8	0.4	0	23		23			77		
52	1.6	0.5	0	37		37			63		
53	2.0	0.1	0	1		1			99		
54	1.7	0.4	0	26		26			74		
55	2.0	0.2	0	3		3			97		
56	1.5	0.5	0	51		51			49		
57	1.6	0.5	0	39		39			61		
58	1.8	0.4	0	19		19			81		
59	1.6	0.5	0	36		36			64		
60	2.0	0.1	0	1		1			99		
61	1.5	0.5	0	47		47			53		
62	2.4	0.9	1	30		30			67		

Note: Number of Respondents: 70

to investigate the nature and expression of the respondents' prevalent feelings (item 62), persons approached by respondents for discussion of emotions (items 45-51), and difficult feelings for respondents (items 52-61).

Students indicated that, when they wanted to discuss strong emotions (items 45 - 51), they approached a parent 39% of the time and a spouse 23% of the time. The emotions/feelings which students have most difficulty with are: frustration, 51% (item 56); hurt, 47% (item 61); anxiety, 39% (item 57); anger, 37% (item 52); and loneliness, 36% (item 59).

As might be expected, in the light of the above, students almost never expressed their negative emotions, while only 67% expressed positive emotions.

These data suggest that students have difficulty expressing emotions and particularly, negative emotions.

It is interesting to note that, in the previous section, students indicated that it was very important for teachers to express their emotions in the classroom. The discrepancy between what they would like to do and what they do may suggest some difficulty once they are in the classroom full time.

H. Classroom Management Techniques

Table 3 shows the choices of classroom management techniques which students would actually use in practice and would use ideally (items 63-70). The choices are rank

TABLE 3
CHOICE OF CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT TECHNIQUES
ACROSS SITUATIONS FROM ACTUAL AND IDEAL PERSPECTIVES

Technique	Actual (#63)*		Ideal (#67)		Actual (#64)		Ideal (#68)		Actual (#65)		Ideal (#69)		Actual (#66)		Ideal (#70)	
TET	54		61		21		13		66		60		56		58	
Rogertian	23		27		70		77		14		21		26		30	
Behavioral	13		6		4		3		13		13		13		7	
Authoritarian	13		4		4		1		1		4		1		1	

Note: Choices in nearest percent

* Refers to Item Number

ordered categorical data. The data indicate students' overwhelming preference for humanistically oriented classroom management techniques. Their preferences were strongest for TET or Rogerian approaches.

The rank ordering of preferences for various techniques was the same for each item, regardless of whether the choice was actual or ideal. This suggests that the distinction between actual and ideal may not have been meaningful for most students. Changes in the pattern of preferences for technique from actual and ideal perspectives measured from a sample of experienced teachers may be more likely due to on-the-job experience. The students in the study appear to have idealistic expectations about the use of classroom management techniques.

The data needs to be interpreted in conjunction with the data from the teaching experience item, which shows that most students (61%) have only student teaching experience. Responses in Table 3, while not entirely preconceptual, are based on limited classroom experience.

The differences between actual and ideal choices of classroom management techniques were small and not significant. Student preferences were relatively stable.

I. University Experiences

Table 4 refers to the categorical items 71 to 76, which attempted to gather information about students' exposure to humanistic values and affective experiences in an

TABLE 4

RESPONSE TO ITEMS DEALING WITH
HUMANISTIC VALUES AND AFFECTIVE EXPERIENCES

Question	M	SD	Response			Category			Percentage		
			NR	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
71	1.6	0.5	3	36	61	0					
72	1.7	0.5	3	29	69	0					
73	1.2	0.4	3	77	20	0					
74	1.6	0.5	3	39	57	0					
75	1.3	0.5	4	60	36	0					
76	1.1	0.4	4	87	7	1					

Note: Respondents: 70

interpersonal or group context.

Thirty-seven percent of the students had taken a course which directly addressed humanistic values. Only 30% of the students had experienced workshops where expression of feelings/emotions were encouraged. Most students (79%) had made some close friends while at university, but had most of their close friends outside university (59%). Sixty-three percent of the students indicated that they had been encouraged to express emotion/feelings within class contexts. Ninety-one percent favored courses which explore feelings as well as thoughts.

These data suggest that students are exposed to professors and/or courses which foster affective education and espouse affective development, but that the extent of their interest in such a perspective or experience is not matched by the availability of courses or appropriately oriented instructors.

Student responses may also indicate that although there may be intellectual belief in courses which explore feelings, this is not matched by their willingness to seek out affective experiences (e.g., item 72).

J. In Summary

The *average* person answering the questionnaire claim:

1. to have had positive "emotional" experiences at school, i.e. teachers liked him/her;
2. to like teaching;

3. to have had teachers who showed sensitivity to feelings;
4. to have had parents who believed and expressed emotions;
5. as a child, to have been happy and expressed their emotions;
6. as an adult, to be highly self-aware (the reverse may be true);
7. to be sympathetic to the goals humanistic education
8. that he/she would go to their friends, then to their parents to talk about strong emotions;
9. that he/she has more "difficulty" with "negative" emotions than with "positive" emotions;
10. he/she expresses mixed emotions (with negative and positive);
11. that he/she would use humanistic techniques for solving management problems in the classroom;
12. that he/she believes that more university courses should deal with feelings as well as thoughts.

K. Factor Analysis of Interval Data

The responses of all subjects to items 1-44, which are the Likert-type interval data, were submitted to a principal components factor analysis (Muliak, 1972). The resulting seventeen factors were subjected to a Scree test (Catell, 1952) which resulted in the selection of six factors

accounting for 43% percent of the total variance. The data were factor analyzed a second time using a varimax rotation (Kerlinger, 1973) and the residual variance redistributed over the six factors chosen by the Scree test. Table 5 shows the principal item loadings and the percentage of total variance accounted for by the six factors.

Factor 1, accounting for 9.2% of the total factorial variance, is a confluent education value orientation to learning. Persons loading positively on this factor favor the use of fantasy and intuition in learning, attention to the affective components of learning and emphasis upon interpersonal communications.

Factor 2, accounting for 7.5% of the total factorial variance, is an emotional-biographical factor. Persons loading positively on this factor are those who had more frequent happy, rather than sad, experiences, had emotionally expressive parents, expressed their feelings as children more often, and believe that expressing emotions is desirable.

Factor 3, accounting for 7.2% of the total factorial variance, is a natural-scientific rational value orientation to education. Persons loading positively on this factor favor performance assessment, teacher control, cognitive learning and emphasis upon intellectual processes.

Factor 4, accounting for 6.8 % of the total factorial variance, is an emotional self-awareness factor. Persons loading positively on this factor perceive themselves as not

TABLE 5
ITEM LOADINGS FOR VARIMAX
ROTATED FACTORS FROM QUESTIONNAIRES

ITEMS	FACTORS					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
37.	.59					
41.	-.59					
38.	-.53					
27.	.49					
25.	.49					
43.	-.46					
12.	.43					
30.	-.40					
	<u>9.2%</u>					
11.		-.76				
7.		.70				
9.		.68				
10.		-.66				
8.		.64				
		<u>7.5%</u>				
40.			.69			
36.			.61			
44.			.54			
22.			.51			
35.			-.46			
19.			.44			
31.			.44			
			<u>7.2%</u>			
17.				.67		
23.				.68		
14.				.64		
20.				.54		
21.				-.53		
				<u>6.8%</u>		
3.					.69	
5.					.68	
6.					-.57	
28.					.44	
13.					.43	
2.					.42	
					<u>6.1%</u>	
18.						.67
4.						.54
22.						-.45
33.						-.43
7.						.42
						<u>5.8%</u>

being as aware of their emotions or thoughts as they could be, even though they perceive themselves as emotionally, rather than intellectually, responsive.

Factor 5, accounting for 6.1% of the total factorial variance, is a biographical student-teacher personal perception factor. Persons loading positively on this factor did not like most of their teachers, thought their teachers' opinions of them were inaccurate and felt unliked by their teachers.

Factor 6, accounting for 5.8% of the total factorial variance, is an anti-intuitive-emotional value orientation and expression factor. Persons with a positive loading on this factor do not value intuition and were generally not exposed to teachers who expressed their emotions. These persons also value intellect more than emotion and view the classroom as an inappropriate place to express emotions.

L. Analyses of Variance

Factor scores on the above factors were employed as the dependent variables in a series of eight one-way ANOVAS to determine whether those persons choosing particular classroom techniques differed significantly in terms of their factor scores. There were four choices of technique in four classroom scenarios, with choices being made from two perspectives (actual and ideal). Table 6 shows the choices of classroom technique which were significantly different from the three alternatives across the eight questionnaire

TABLE 6
CHOICE OF CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT TECHNIQUES
PRODUCING SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES IN FACTOR SCORES
ACROSS CLASSROOM SCENARIOS

	Item	Factors					
		1	2	3	4	5	6
ACTUAL	63						
	64	Rogers	TET		Rogers		TET
	65						
	66	TET		TET			
IDEAL	67						
	68	Rogers					
	69						
	70	TET					

Note: Differences were significant at $p < .05$ level

The actual-ideal scenario choices are paired 63-67, 64-68, 65-69, 66-70

items (63-70).

Four of the eight significant differences in Table 6 were on Factor 1, while there was one significant difference on Factors 2, 3, 4 and 5. These data suggest that Factor 1 is the best predictor of persons choosing a Rogerian or TET classroom management technique in both actual and ideal situations.

As might be expected from the frequency data contained in Table 6, the most preferred choices of classroom management technique (Rogerian and TET) are those expressed in terms of significant differences in factor scores. The choice of TET for items 63-67 and for items 65-69 approached significance. These data show that those persons choosing Rogerian and TET techniques have significantly higher scores on the confluent value orientation to learning factor in two of the classroom scenarios from both an actual and ideal perspective.

Table 6 shows that significant differences on factors 2, 3, 4 and 5 occur only from the actual perspective and for one scenario each, suggesting that these factors are not as strong as predictors of choice of Rogerian or TET techniques. Choice of TET results in significantly higher scores on the emotional-biographical and significantly lower scores on both the natural-scientific value orientation and biographical student-teacher personal perception factors. Choice of Rogerian technique results in a significantly higher score on the emotional self-awareness factor.

Persons choosing a Rogerian approach to classroom management appear to favor a confluent approach to education and responding emotionally themselves. Persons choosing TET also favor a confluent approach to education, tend to have had a happier childhood-emotional experience in their homes, tend not to value rationality and natural science highly and believe that they liked and were liked by their teachers. These data point to the importance of the teacher-trainees' home and school experiences in terms of his/her value orientation towards particular educational techniques and philosophies.

M. Cross Tabulations of Categorical Data

Although there were more significant associative relationships in the cross tabulations of data than presented here, only those considered to be meaningful are presented. Many of the statistically significant associations were the result of very small deviant cells in the contingency tables. The following data are abstracted from the cross tabulation of variables (items) 45 -76 and the categorical items dealing with age, specialization, program and sex.

Age

The modal age group (born 1959) opted strongly for a Rogerian approach to classroom management (82.1%) on item 68 and the use of TET (67.9%) on item 69. The number of

individuals falling outside the modal age was too small to produce meaningful relationships between age and the choice of classroom management technique.

Specialization

Because of the small sample size, there were not enough subjects in each of the teaching specializations to create the possibility of meaningful relationships with other variables. The majority of students favored either a Rogerian or TET approach to classroom management. When an authoritarian or behavioral approach was favored by a particular specialization, there was invariably one person in that group.

Program

There was a significant association between teaching program (item 3) and vocational choice (item 7). Majorities of students in elementary (61.3%), secondary (76.0%) and special education (88.9%) chose teaching as their first vocation, while none of those in the vocational program did (Chi square = 11.38, $df = 3$, $p < .01$). However, the small number (4) of vocational students suggests caution in interpreting this finding.

The overall number of students having difficulty in dealing with frustration (50.7%) (item 56) suggests that the processing of this emotion needs attention within the teaching training program and reinforces the case for

affective education. A significantly higher proportion of secondary students (72%) reported difficulty with frustration (Chi square = 8.55, $df = 3$, $p < .04$). This may suggest that, as a result of practicum experience, students find secondary teaching more stressful.

Table 7 shows the choices of classroom management techniques (items 63 - 70) according to teaching program from actual to ideal perspectives collapsed across the four classroom scenarios. The pattern of choice overall clearly shows a preference for Rogerian and TET classroom management techniques, regardless of teaching program.

Sex

Most males (59.8%) and females (75%) thought religion to be either very or moderately important in their lives. More men (40.2%) than women (25%) thought religion to be unimportant or neither important nor unimportant (Chi square = 7.52, $df = 3$, $p < .06$).

Sex is significantly associated with choice of teaching as a profession (item 7). Females choose teaching as a first choice (75%) more than males (41.2%) (Chi square = 5.16, $df = 1$, $p < .02$). In total, 66.7% of those training to be teachers are doing so as a result of their first choice of vocation.

Rather than look at specific associations between sex and individual items pertaining to classroom management techniques (items 63 - 70), the data for items 63 - 66 and

TABLE 7

PERCENT CHOICE OF CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT TECHNIQUE FOR
ACTUAL AND IDEAL PERSPECTIVES ACCORDING TO SEX

Perspective	Auth.		Reg.		Beh.		TET	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Actual	19.1	8.17	26.45	32.67	7.37	8.17	45.6	49.52
Ideal	10.3	0.47	39.70	39.10	11.77	5.77	36.77	52.67

items 67 - 70 were combined to provide a more reliable indication of any relationship between sex and choice of classroom management technique from either an actual or ideal perspective. Table 7 shows the percent choice of classroom management technique for males and females for both actual and ideal perspectives. Both males and females strongly favor Rogerian or TET approaches. Males favor the authoritarian approach more than the females. From an ideal perspective, males favor authoritarian and behavioral approaches more than women, while females favor TET more than men.

More females (78%) than males (47%) have not experienced workshops where they were encouraged to express their emotions (item 72) (Chi square = 4.41, $df = 1$, $p < .04$).

Students Who Talk With Friends About Strong Emotions: Item 47

There is a significant association between talking to friends about strong emotions and talking to siblings (item 50). The two are negatively associated (Chi square = 12.467, $df = 1$, $p < .001$). This suggests a type of insularity or limited openness in discussing emotions.

Difficulty With Frustration: Item 56

of the 52.2% of students who have difficulty with frustration, 75% favor TET on item 70, while 45.5% of the

47.8% students who don't have difficulty favor a Rogerian method of classroom management (Chi square = 13.45, $df = 4$, $p < .01$).

Taken Courses on Humanistic Concepts: Item 71

There is a significant association between those who have taken courses on humanistic concepts and making close friends at University (item 73) (96%). Such students have made close friends at university, while those who haven't taken such courses (69.8%) have made close friends at university (Chi square = 5.14, $df = 1$, $p < .03$).

There is a significant association between taking such courses and having most of one's close friends (item 74) at University. Fifty-six percent of those taking humanistic courses had most of their close friends at university, while 30.2% of those not taking humanistic courses had most of their friends at university. (Chi square = 5.14, $df = 1$, $p < .02$). Those who enroll in such courses may be more open and friendly and/or such courses may facilitate personal friendships.

Those Who Talk With Siblings: Item 50

There is a significant negative association between talking with one's siblings and having any close friends at university (Chi square = 4.12, $df = 1$, $p < .04$). Almost half (42.9%) of the 10.3% who talk with siblings don't have close friends at university, while 83.6% of the 89.7% who don't

talk to siblings have a close friend at university. However, the number of students talking to siblings is small (3). Those who talk within their family appear to maintain this source of social contact exclusively, having few, if any, close friends at university.

Professors Who Encouraged Expression of Feelings in Courses:

Item 75

There was a significant positive association between exposure to professors who encouraged expression of feelings and the choice of TET as a classroom management technique (item 65). of the 68.7% of students who chose TET, 76.2% of them had been in courses where expression of feelings was encouraged (Chi square = 9.75, df = 4, $p < .05$).

There was a significant positive association between exposure to professors' encouraging the expression of feelings and participation in courses dealing with humanistic concepts (item 71) (Chi square = 3.99, df = 1, $p < .05$). of the 37.3% of students taking courses dealing with humanistic concepts, 80% had exposure to professors who encouraged the expression of feelings.

There was a significant association between attending workshops that encourage the expression of feelings (item 72) and being exposed to professors who encouraged the expression of feelings (Chi square = 4.78, df = 1, $p < .03$). of the 29.9% of students attending workshops that encouraged the expression of feelings, 85% had been exposed to

professors who encouraged the expression of feelings. However, of the 62.7% of students exposed to professors who encouraged expression of feelings, most have not attended workshops (59.5%). Attending the workshops may be more indicative of a student's attachment to humanistic values because of the greater personal involvement required. Exposure to theoretical or policy-type statements about humanistic values from professors does not place as many demands upon the student as a workshop.

There was a significant positive association between making close friends at university (item 73) and being exposed to professors who encouraged the expression of feelings (Chi square = 4.14, $df = 1$, $p < .04$). of the 62.7% of students who had been exposed to professors who encouraged the expression of feelings, 88.1% had made close friends at university while 64% of those who had not been exposed to such professors had made close friends.

Students Who Favor Feeling Type Courses at University: Item 76

Almost all students (91%) favor such courses and the humanistic classroom management techniques of TET and Rogerian methods (item 64). There is a significant positive association between these variables (Chi square = 38.27, $df = 6$, $p < .001$).

N. Cross Tabulations of Actual-Ideal Choices of Classroom Techniques

Table 8 shows the associations of choices of classroom management techniques within the actual and ideal perspectives across situations and between the actual and ideal perspectives for four common situations.

As might be expected, four of the six possible pairwise associations within the actual category were significantly associated.

For the four common situations, actual-ideal choices of classroom technique were significantly associated in three of the four cases. These data indicate a high degree of concurrence between actual and ideal choices of classroom technique. There is more consistency across situations when the choice is ideal (100%), however, when the perspective is actual, the preference for a particular classroom technique is more variable across situations (75%). Practicality does appear to make a difference even at a theoretical level.

Table 3 shows the above data in the form of percentages of students choosing classroom management techniques--the four situations for actual and ideal perspectives. The table confirms the picture of a high degree of consistency in technique chosen for all situations from both perspectives. Differences appear to exist mainly between the choices of classroom technique, rather than between actual and ideal perspectives.

TABLE 8
ASSOCIATION OF CHOICES OF CLASSROOM
MANAGEMENT TECHNIQUE FROM
ACTUAL AND IDEAL PERSPECTIVES

		Actual					Ideal				
		63	64	65	66	67	68	69	70		
AC	63		*23.81	*20.76							
	64			*28.08			*36.70				
	65				*42.94			*94.70	*59.15		
AL	66								*58.54		
	67						*37.99	*85.99			
	68							*42.64	*76.99		
ELA	69								*61.02		
	70										

*Significant Chi square $p < .05$

D. Cross Tabulations of Programs and Choice of Classroom Technique

These data were pooled and averaged in order to stabilize the measures. The pattern of choice of classroom technique for each program was summed across the four classroom situations and the mean taken to give a stable measure of classroom management technique preferred.

Table 9 shows that the pattern of choices for elementary and secondary students is very similar.

Although the vocational and special education pattern is also similar, the major difference appears to be that the vocational group is higher on authoritarian choices while the special education group is higher on behavioral choices. This may be due in part to the smaller number of subjects in each of those two categories, or it may be due to difference in value orientation and training. Most vocational education students are already trained and experienced in a trade and tend to be older than the average student. It is possible that special education students are more exposed to behavioral techniques and concepts.

P. Analysis of Variance of Differences in Six Factor Scores for Each Training Program

Table 10 indicates that there were no significant differences between program groups on the six factor score means or that preferences/differences within the sample for different factors were fairly evenly distributed across

TABLE 9
MEAN PERCENT CHOICE OF CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT
TECHNIQUE FOR DIFFERENT TEACHER TRAINING PROGRAMS

Program	TET		Rogerian		Behavioral		Authoritarian	
	Actual	Ideal	Actual	Ideal	Actual	Ideal	Actual	Ideal
Elem.	50.20	52.20	31.70	37.70	9.00	7.40	9.00	2.50
Second.	50.00	50.70	33.70	38.50	6.00	7.10	10.10	1.00
Vocat'l	56.25	27.10	18.15	45.80	0.00	0.00	25.00	27.10
Special Educ.	41.70	46.90	30.50	41.70	13.90	11.10	13.90	0.00

TABLE 10
COMPARISON OF FACTOR SCORE MEANS FOR
TEACHER TRAINING PROGRAMS

Program	Factor				
	1	2	3	4	5
Elementary	-.0809	-.1419	.0669	.0329	-.0119
Secondary	.1217	-.1142	.0033	-.0088	-.1632
Vocational	.0675	.7868	.0606	-.3534	.10354
Special Education	.0059	.3216	-.2645	-.2823	.0748
					.0171

programs.

A. Classroom Management Techniques

Table 11 shows the frequency of subjects' responses on the choice of classroom management techniques from both actual and ideal for the four programs. The pattern of responses for each program sub-sample was examined.

There appears to be a preference for the humanistically oriented techniques (Rogerian, TET), regardless of the program respondents are enrolled in.

The overall pattern was similar for all groups with the following exceptions.

---On question 63, special education students preferred Rogerian and Behavioral techniques rather than TET.

---Vocational education students chose Rogerian over TET on question 67 and they were split among the four choices on question 70.

The rank ordering of preferences for various techniques remains relatively stable, for each program suggesting that the distinction between actual and ideal was not meaningful for most students. This data closely parallels the findings reported in Table 3, Section H.

TABLE 11
CHOICE OF CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT TECHNIQUES
ACROSS SITUATIONS FROM ACTUAL AND IDEAL PERSPECTIVES FOR ALL PROGRAMS

Tech- nique	Pro- gram	Actual (#63)	Ideal (#67)	Actual (#64)	Ideal (#68)	Actual (#65)	Ideal (#69)	Actual (#66)	Ideal (#70)
TET	Elem.	53	63	19	25	66	59	59	53
	Sec.	56	60	24	16	68	56	48	68
	Voc.	75	25	25	0	75	50	50	25
	Sp. Ed.	22	56	22	0	56	70	67	56
Rog.	Elem.	19	19	75	72	6	19	25	38
	Sec.	28	32	64	76	8	32	32	20
	Voc.	0	50	50	75	0	25	25	25
	Sp. Ed.	33	33	78	100	0	0	11	33

(Continued...)

TABLE 11 (Continued)
CHOICE OF CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT TECHNIQUES
ACROSS SITUATIONS FROM ACTUAL AND IDEAL PERSPECTIVES FOR ALL PROGRAMS

Tech- nique	Pro- gram	Actual (#63)*	Ideal (#67)	Actual (#64)	Ideal (#68)	Actual (#65)	Ideal (#69)	Actual (#66)	Ideal (#70)
Beh.	Elem.	16	3	3	3	16	16	0	6
	Sec.	4	8	8	4	8	8	4	8
	Voc.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	25
	Sp.Ed.	33	11	0	0	22	22	0	11
Auth.	Elem.	13	6	3	0	9	3	13	0
	Sec.	12	0	4	0	16	4	8	0
	Voc.	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25
	Sp.Ed.	11	0	0	0	22	0	22	0

Note: Choices in nearest percent

* Refers to Item Number

V. DISCUSSION AND SUMMARY

The three major purposes of this study were:

1. to investigate the beliefs, values and classroom management techniques of future teachers
2. to explore those factors which differentiate humanistically orientated teachers from more traditional teachers
3. to identify differences between students in various teaching programs as to classroom practices

To investigate the above, a questionnaire was designed and administered to a random sample of fourth-year education students. The use of a questionnaire to gather such information presumes a certain degree of awareness of one's values, beliefs and behaviors. In other words, some introspection is required. According to Nisbett and Wilson (1977), subjects in studies and experiments are generally not aware of cognitive processes. Osborne (1981) hypothesizes that "what may be occurring in these studies is pseudo-introspection (subjects who believe they are more aware of their behavior than they actually are)" (p. 281).

The data gathered in investigating the first purpose of this study appear to be an example of this problem. Some data from Section E dealing with self-awareness and self-control suggest that the subjects perceived themselves as highly self-aware individuals who were in control of their thoughts and feelings most of the time. Yet the uncertainty and confusion expressed on the items in the same

section which concerned awareness of feeling suggest that the respondents are less aware than they perceive themselves to be.

This apparent lack of congruence and self-awareness may have repercussions in the classroom. Individuals who lack awareness of themselves may also be unaware of the impact which their behavior has on students. Confusion and frustration as to why students behave in certain ways may develop, and individuals who are less self-aware may have a tendency to blame, criticize or punish rather than exploring how their behavior affects students.

The data from Section F indicates that students are sympathetic to the importance of feelings and expression of emotions in the classroom (the prime distinction between the humanistic and other models of education). However, the uncertainty expressed when answering questions dealing with the philosophical and theoretical underpinnings of the humanistic model may suggest an intellectual acceptance of this model that is not supported by understanding arising from personal experience (*genuine learning* as Colaizzi, 1979, defines it). Respondents may think they would encourage expression of feelings (items 25, 33, 34, 43) yet answers to items 45 to 62 indicate otherwise. Very few students enrolled in workshops dealing with the expression of emotions. Students had fairly positive experiences at school yet few had teachers who spoke about feelings and emotions. Generally, parents tended not to express emotions,

possibly advocating control rather than expression. Respondents did not approach teachers when they wanted to discuss strong emotions or feelings. Respondents almost never expressed negative emotions and only 67% expressed positive emotions. The subjects appear to have difficulty expressing emotions and on the other hand advocate expression within the classroom. Such a discrepancy may indicate an intellectual acceptance of the importance of expressing feelings rather than a genuine understanding developed from personal experience. There is also the underlying suggestion, that again, respondents perceive themselves as more aware of their beliefs and behaviors than they actually are. To some extent, this discrepancy and lack of awareness may be a function of developmental immaturity, as the majority of respondents were in their early twenties, and lacked extensive teaching experience. However, the question arises as to what the university program can do to integrate an intellectual acceptance and personal experience.

Providing more affectively oriented courses and experiences within courses which focus on developing self-awareness are two ways of trying to develop an integrated understanding of affective education. If students are not aware of the time and place for expressing feelings in the classroom, then experiences within university classes which allow for expression may help them learn. Experiences which allow students to lead each other and school-age

children in expressing and dealing with feelings may also be beneficial. For example, university students could lead elementary students in magic circle sessions or secondary students in inner change sessions.

The experience of leading small groups in exploring feelings may possibly be more readily transferred to a school classroom than an intellectual concept that feelings are important.

There are no quick and ready answers, but if future teachers are being taught that the feelings and psychological development of their students is important, then they must be provided with personal experiences which support these statements and provide for an experientially based understanding.

The data from Section H indicates an overwhelming preference for humanistically orientated techniques in handling classroom management situations. That students could not distinguish between actual and ideal choices suggests a lack of experience as to what works (i.e., achieves desired results) within a classroom. This situation is probably the direct result of students' lack of teaching experience.

Changes may occur in preferences for certain techniques when respondents gain experience in the classroom. They may discover that what appears idealistically appropriate may not work given the realities day-to-day in the classroom. It may also be that the system is not conducive to the

utilization of humanistic techniques (i.e., bells, desks in rows, large classes, subject matter emphasis, authoritarian hierarchy).

In summary, there were some interesting indications from the analyses of Sections A to I. Students were unable to distinguish between actual and ideal choices of classroom management techniques. Respondents appeared to have an intellectual *versus* experiential acceptance of the humanistic model and they perceived themselves to be more aware of their beliefs and behaviors than they actually are. These findings may in part explain the *culture shock* type trauma that many first year teachers experience. Beginning teachers may wish to be *facilitative* rather than *authoritarian* in their approach; however, it would appear that teacher training programs at the University of Alberta may not adequately prepare them to fulfill their wishes.

If facilitative teachers are to become aware of their own values, belief systems and the impact that their behaviors have upon the psychological and emotional growth of students, some implications for teacher training programs emerge. There appears to be a need for more courses which emphasize and encourage individuals to deeply explore their own values, belief systems, personal background, feelings and behaviors. Introspection and other forms of self-exploration are necessary for developing an awareness of one's belief system and philosophy, and would facilitate an understanding of whether it is intellectually based. The

development of classroom practices that are consistent with one's beliefs and values could also emerge. More practical classroom experience, coupled with courses specifically designed to focus upon integrating beliefs and practice are necessary in order to develop the facilitative and humanistic approach that students appear to desire.

The Educational Psychology department at the University of Alberta appears to be aware of this need. In the 1983 - 1984 term, four undergraduate courses (417, 425, 493 and 495) are being offered. These courses explore personal values, self-awareness and development as a person and future teacher. An exploration of issues and conflicts that have emerged from four years at university is also offered. To some degree, all of these courses all appear to be experiential as well as cognitive in nature. But several questions remain. Are enough courses of this type being offered? Do other departments need to become aware of and involved in offering courses of this nature?

In regard to the second purpose of this study described on page 75, it would appear that those respondents choosing the humanistic techniques (Rogerian and TET) of classroom management favor a confluent or humanistic approach to education. This approach includes using fantasy and intuition in learning, emphasizing interpersonal communication, attending to affective aspects of learning and responding emotionally to oneself. Respondents choosing humanistic techniques tend not to value performance

assessment, teacher control, cognitive learning and emphasis upon intellectual processes. Persons specifically choosing TET also had happier childhood experiences and believe that they liked and were liked by their teachers. As was suggested in Chapter 4, it is important to recognize the impact that a person's home and school experiences have in the formulation of his/her philosophy of education and subsequently his/her behavior as a teacher in the classroom. Again, this points to the need for courses which extensively explore personal background to facilitate an understanding of how a person's experiences influence his/her present educational philosophy and classroom behavior.

It would also seem that university courses taught using the confluent or humanistic approach would provide modelling experiences for students. It is possible that students taught in a confluent way be more likely to teach using a confluent approach. Generally, university courses tend to emphasize cognitive and intellectual development, and performance assessment with little if any attention paid to the affective components of learning or the development of interpersonal or communication skills. There is a discrepancy between what students are told in education courses (i.e., motivation is important, make the content interesting, each student is important and must be treated as an individual, teach the whole child, etc.) and how they are taught for example, some courses on emotional learning are taught cognitively. It is a gap that must be bridged if

the humanistic model of education is to be successfully implemented within the school setting. The old adage "do as I say not as I do" may be in evidence. How can future teachers expect to successfully implement a humanistic approach when most of their own schooling experiences have been in a system emphasizing a more traditional approach?

Part of the difficulty is a result of the university's traditional emphasis upon research and theoretical knowledge. However, the Faculty of Education is in the unique position of having to address two possibly conflicting goals. Students must be introduced to theoretical knowledge (Goal One) and be trained and prepared to function in the classroom as teachers (Goal Two). Goal One is primarily cognitive in nature, while Goal Two is more experiential (i.e., student teaching). A problem arises when there is little if any provision for integration of these two goals. In other words, how do individuals learn the relationship between theory and practice? At present, it would appear that this is done by trial and error. It may be advisable to design a compulsory course, within each program or specialization, which addresses this issue specifically.

Another difficulty is that the theories which students are exposed to are often based on current research in the field and thus may be difficult to implement in the classroom as it presently exists. Again, how do students reconcile the practical realities of the classroom with the new ideas and techniques they are told about? Student

teaching alone may not be enough to facilitate the integration of university based instruction and the classroom situation. It may be easier for students to make the transition from theory to practice if there were more opportunities to discuss this issue within experiential settings contained in university classes.

A number of analyses were employed to determine whether students in the various teaching programs differed in their choice of classroom management techniques (the third purpose of the study). The results consistently showed that, regardless of program enrolled in, the students preferred the humanistic classroom management techniques. Although caution is necessary in interpreting these findings (as there were small numbers of subjects in special and vocational education), a random sample was utilized. It is therefore possible to address some general questions.

If students consistently prefer humanistic techniques for classroom management, why are there not more education courses which emphasize, teach and provide experiences using this approach? Is it possible that there is a gap between what students desire and what the university programs are providing? Or is it possible that what the students think they want is due to a lack of practical classroom experience in which the integration of personal philosophy and theory with practice occurs? The data which indicates that respondents cannot distinguish between actual and ideal choices supports this notion. Again, this points to the need

for not only more classroom experience, but for courses which provide opportunity to experience the impact one's philosophy has on classroom behavior. More courses on self-reflection, theories of the person and personal value might also encourage the process of self-discovery. Self-reflection is particularly important if the goal is to produce facilitative teachers. Perhaps a shift in emphasis from curriculum and content to personal exploration coupled with more experiential learning at the university would help in the attainment of this goal.

A. Summary and Implications

It appears that the sample of fourth year education students surveyed have expressed a preference for the philosophy and techniques of the humanistic model of education. A number of implications for the university teacher training program emerge as a result of this expressed preference.

Because the humanistic model attends to affective as well as cognitive development, future teachers require training in dealing with the recognition and expression of feelings. This is advisable since the majority of students surveyed here appear to have difficulty in expressing emotions.

Facilitative or humanistic teachers need to be aware of the impact their behavior has on students. This points to a need for more courses which emphasize or encourage

self-reflection and self-awareness. The process of self-reflection should also include opportunities to integrate a personal teaching philosophy with the realities of the classroom. Hopefully, this would help lessen the *culture shock* beginning teachers often experience.

As was suggested earlier, few students have had the experience of being taught by professors using the confluent or humanistic approach. If students had more courses in which this model was utilized, it may be easier for them to teach in a similar manner in their own classrooms.

B. Directions for Future Research

Earlier discussions suggest that some of the findings are the result of a lack of classroom experience and developmental maturity. Subjects could be given the same questionnaire after one and five years of experience to determine to what extent idealistic expectations and lack of experience played in answering the questions.

Future research might also consider the role that courses specifically designed to focus on integration of theory and practice have in lessening the *culture shock* of new teachers. A group of first year teachers could be given the questionnaire at the beginning of the school year. Half of the group could then attend inservice sessions which focus upon integration of theory and practice. At the end of the school year, the questionnaire would be readministered to all teachers and comparisons made between the two groups.

Another way to approach this issue would be to compare students from two educational curriculum and instruction courses. One course could be designed to focus on integration and one could deal with curriculum content. Pre and post tests could be administered to both groups and comparisons made.

Finally, it has been suggested that self-reflection and self-awareness are important factors in the development of facilitative teaching styles. Although the literature abounds with assertions of this viewpoint, little empirical investigation has been carried out. It may be useful to understand the relationship between self-awareness and facilitative teaching. Such research could contribute to the development of courses which would encourage the growth of facilitative teachers. This is particularly important if, as the findings from this study suggest, students at the University of Alberta truly wish to move in the direction of more humanistic teaching.

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APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE

APPENDIX A: Questionnaire

Part A

Explanation

This is a survey of randomly selected fourth year education students. The purpose is to investigate some of the values, beliefs and prospective educational practices of teacher trainees as they leave the teacher education program.

Your co-operation in completing this survey is greatly appreciated. Please answer the enquiries from your personal experience or point of view. Your participation is anonymous so there is no cause to be concerned about unpleasant repercussions of speaking freely. We hope that findings will help clarify the sorts of values University of Alberta graduates have as they leave the teacher training program. Results will be made available to anyone interested, by contacting one of the two researchers listed below.

Thank you.

John Osborne
Gloria Boisvert
Department of Educational Psychology

QUESTIONNAIRE

Answer the following two questions on the general purpose answer sheet in the space provided in the bottom left hand corner.

Identification Number _____

Age _____

Answer this question in the space provided for name in the upper left hand corner.

Specialization (e.g., phys ed, drama) _____

Answer the following questions by filling in the correct number in the bottom left hand space labelled special code.

Program

- 0) Elementary
- 1) Secondary
- 2) Vocational
- 3) Special Education

Sex

- 0) Male
- 1) Female

Teaching Experience

- 0) No full time teaching experience
- 1) Less than one year full time
- 2) 1-5 years full time
- 3) Over 5 years full time
- 4) Student teaching only

How important is religion in your life?

- 0) very important
- 1) moderately important
- 2) neither important nor unimportant
- 3) unimportant
- 4) very unimportant

As a vocation, teaching was my:

- 0) first choice
- 1) not my first choice

Part B

In answering these questions you will find that they follow the format presented below. We have included an example to assist you in responding appropriately. Please transfer your response to the answer sheet by darkening the appropriate box when you come to the questions on the next pages.

Example

Please check the box beneath the statement that most accurately reflects your opinion.

My teacher is competent

rarely / / / / often
A B C D E

If you rarely had competent teachers you would respond this way

rarely / / / / often
A B C D E

If you had about the same number of competent and incompetent teachers you would respond this way

rarely / / / / often
A B C D E

If you had many competent teachers you would respond this way

rarely / / / / often
A B C D E

Section I

When answering the following questions, think about the relationships you had with your teachers.

1. My teachers showed sensitivity to their students feelings

most teachers / / / / no teacher
 A B C D E

2. My teachers spoke to their students about feelings/emotions

no teacher / / / / most teachers
 A B C D E

3. I liked my teachers

most of them / / / / none of them
 A B C D E

4. My teachers displayed their personal emotions/feelings

Most teachers / / / / no teacher
 A B C D E

5. I thought that my teachers' opinions of me were

accurate / / / / inaccurate
 A B C D E

6. My teachers liked me

no teachers / / / / most teachers
 A B C D E

Think about the relationship you had with your parents when answering the following.

7. In emotional circumstances my parents would

express their emotions / / / / hide their emotions
 A B C D E

8. My parents believe that showing feelings/emotions is

desirable / / / / undesirable
 A B C D E

To answer the following questions, think about your childhood.

9. As a child, in emotional circumstances I

expressed feelings / / / / hid my feelings

A B C D E

10. As a child I felt sad

often / / / / seldom

A B C D E

11. As a child I felt happy

seldom / / / / often

A B C D E

When answering the following think about yourself as an adult.

12. I try to be calm and collected

rarely / / / / often

A B C D E

13. When I am aware of negative feelings I

hide them / / / / express them

A B C D E

14. I know and understand myself

thoroughly / / / / slightly

A B C D E

15. I enjoy planning and thinking about an activity more than actually doing it

sometimes / / / / never

A B C D E

16. I can accept situations that are confusing with

ease / / / / difficulty

A B C D E

17. From moment to moment I know what I am feeling

most of the time / / / / none of the time
A B C D E

18. I allow my intuitions to influence my behavior

most of the time / / / / none of the time
A B C D E

19. From moment to moment I am aware of what my body is doing

rarely / / / / always
A B C D E

Reflect on the words "think" and "feel" and answer the following.

20. I tend to feel things rather than think about things.

often / / / / rarely
A B C D E

21. I am able to control my feelings/emotions

none of the time / / / / most of the time
A B C D E

22. What I *think* about things is more important than what I *feel* about things.

mostly / / / / rarely
A B C D E

23. I am in control of my thoughts

none of the time / / / / most of the time
A B C D E

Section II

Before answering, think about these values as they relate to education and society.

24. Measurement, prediction and control of human behavior are

essential / / / / unessential
 A B C D E

25. It is important that when dealing with students, teachers should

express their feelings / / / / hide their feelings
 A B C D E

26. A teacher's function is to help students

come up with answers / / / / ask questions
 A B C D E

27. It is important for students to receive instruction in communication skills.

strongly agree / / / / strongly disagree
 A B C D E

28. Behavior is influenced mainly by

emotion / / / / intellect
 A B C D E

29. It is important that instruction occur in a sequential manner

strongly agree / / / / strongly disagree
 A B C D E

30. Enjoying being with children is a prerequisite for successful teaching

strongly disagree / / / / strongly agree
 A B C D E

31. It is possible to separate intellectual experience

from emotional experience

strongly agree / / / / strongly disagree
A B C D E

32. Mastery of information is the most important part of school

strongly disagree / / / / strongly agree
A B C D E

33. The classroom is an appropriate place for students to express emotions

strongly disagree / / / / strongly agree
A B C D E

34. It is important to show sensitivity to the feelings of others

strongly agree / / / / strongly disagree
A B C D E

35. Logic is more important than feeling

strongly disagree / / / / strongly agree
A B C D E

36. Students will learn best if the teacher is in firm control

strongly agree / / / / strongly disagree
A B C D E

37. The classroom is not a place to teach values

strongly disagree / / / / strongly agree
A B C D E

38. Intuition is a valid form of learning

strongly disagree / / / / strongly agree
A B C D E

39. Self understanding is an important goal in education

strongly agree / / / / strongly disagree
 A B C D E

40. Formal classroom tests are essential for accurate assessment of student performance

strongly agree / / / / strongly disagree
 A B C D E

41. Fantasy experiences can be a valuable means of learning

strongly disagree / / / / strongly agree
 A B C D E

42. Experiential learning is more important than lecture based learning

strongly agree / / / / strongly disagree
 A B C D E

43. Children's feelings are always important

strongly disagree / / / / strongly agree
 A B C D E

44. The school should concentrate on developing the intellect

strongly agree / / / / strongly disagree
 A B C D E

Part C

If you had strong emotions and you wanted someone to talk to, which of the following do you usually approach?

- 45 parents_____
- 46 teachers_____
- 47 friends_____
- 48 counsellors_____
- 49 minister_____
- 50 siblings_____
- 51 spouse_____

Which feelings do you recall having difficulty with?

- 52 anger_____
- 53 happiness_____
- 54 sadness/sorrow_____
- 55 joy/ecstasy_____
- 56 frustration_____
- 57 anxiety_____
- 58 grief_____
- 59 loneliness_____
- 60 excitement_____
- 61 hurt_____

When I express my emotions, they are mostly

- 62 (A) positive_____
- 62 (B) negative_____
- 62 (C) mixed_____

Part D

A number of classroom situations are described here which require a choice of management techniques. Read the description of the situation then, on the answer sheet provided, choose two alternatives. The first choice is to be the technique that you would actually use in the situation while the second choice is what you think the most ideal alternative would be. However, you may have the same alternative for both choices. We realize that sometimes it is not possible to do what we consider ideal.

1. Two students have been talking at inappropriate times during your lessons. The talking seems to be increasing. Other students are showing signs of increased talking.
 - a. Inform the two students that they will be given additional work if they continue to talk at the wrong time.
 - b. Arrange for a discussion with these students in which you explore their awareness or lack of awareness of their behavior and the feelings associated with these behaviors. Explain the ways in which their behavior is disrupting the lessons and how you feel about the situation.
 - c. The students are told that their talking without permission is inappropriate and that each time they talk a tally will be placed on the board. The students are also praised for not talking inappropriately.
 - d. During a private discussion you inform the two students that you are upset by their talking and explain how it disrupts the lesson. You invite them to state their views and feelings on the situation. You ask them to join with you in working out a compromise solution to a mutual problem.
2. Jane, a senior high school student is frequently absent from your class. When she does attend you have noticed that she has become very withdrawn, has lost a considerable amount of weight and has dark circles under her eyes.
 - a. Arrange for Jane to sit near another student who frequently receives positive reinforcement for class participation. Ask Jane to handle simple classroom tasks that assist you (e.g., social-clerical duties) and praise her contribution. Emphasize class participation by frequent use of verbal praise and attention.

- b. Explain to her that since she doesn't attend classes regularly, she will most certainly fail and therefore you are going to insist that she drop your class unless she is willing to come on a consistent basis.
 - c. Arrange a meeting during which you express your concern for Jane's academic and personal welfare. You ask her to share her thoughts and feelings about the situation at school and elsewhere. You try to understand her situation by clarifying your perceptions (and hers) of what is happening. You offer as much support as you can in helping her to feel that your classroom is a place where she is cared for.
 - d. In a discussion with Jane you express your concern for her behavior by pointing out the adverse consequences upon her academic progress. You invite her to share her thoughts and feelings about the situation. Through examination of alternatives you arrive at a mutually agreeable solution to the problem of her absenteeism and withdrawn behavior.
3. John is a very quiet unassuming 10th grade student. He is not a behavior problem however he rarely completes assignments. He is a member of the school basketball team.
- a. Invite him to join you in a discussion, in which you both express your thoughts and feelings while attempting to define what the problem is. Both contribute possible solutions and explore the consequences of those solutions until a mutual agreement is reached.
 - b. John is given assignments of appropriate difficulty level. As he satisfactorily completes assignments he earns points which can be exchanged for free time or preferred activities. Bonus points are awarded for completion of assignments in class time.
 - c. Meet with John after school. Encourage him to talk about his feelings towards you, your class, and the assignments. You carefully listen, clarify perceptions on both sides in a non-critical way. The emphasis is upon accepting the feelings he describes rather than attempting to change his beliefs or behaviors.
 - d. Inform him that he will not be allowed to remain in your class unless he begins to hand in assignments. You also remind him that if he is suspended from your class he will not be allowed to stay on the basketball team.
4. Bill and Frank are 4th grade students who have been

engaged in verbal abuse bordering on physical hostility over a period of weeks. One day they begin a fist fight at the pencil sharpener during which Bill begins to cry.

- a. At an after school meeting you ask each, in turn, about his feelings towards the other. You must then give each a chance to respond to the other's statement. The emphasis is upon trying to understand the other person's feelings rather than criticize them.
- b. At an after school conference each student is given an opportunity to state what he believes started the fight. You also give your opinion. Once this is done each student is encouraged to offer suggestions as to how to get along in the classroom and on the playground. The discussion terminates with mutual agreement upon a suggested solution.
- c. Warn the boys that further fighting will result in their being taken to the principal's office and their parents contacted.
- d. Baseline data on the frequency of the fighting behavior of the two boys is collected. A contract is drawn up between each child, his teacher and parent in which it is agreed that he will try not to get into fist fights, that he will receive one check mark for every half-hour free of fighting, that each occurrence of fighting results in a loss of one check mark, that twelve check marks can be exchanged for a candy or small toy and that if for or more check marks are taken away he gives up watching TV for one day. Both parent and teacher agree to give check marks according to the terms of the contract.

Answer Sheet Part D

Instructions: Make two choices for each classroom management situation.

Scenario	Technique you would use.	Technique you consider ideal.
1	63	67
2	64	68
3	65	69
4	66	70

Part E

Answer the questions briefly.

71. Have you had any courses which dealt directly with the concepts and values in humanistic education?

Yes _____

No _____

If yes, please state the name of the course and briefly describe what was done.

72. Have you ever attended any workshops in which you were encouraged to express your feelings/emotions?

Yes _____

No _____

If yes, briefly describe what the workshop was about.

73. Have you made any close friends while at university?

Yes _____

No _____

74. Are most of your close friends associated with life at university?

Yes _____

No _____

75. Have any of your professors encouraged students to express feelings/emotions either in class activities, personal meetings or in written assignments?

Yes _____

No _____

If yes, please elaborate as to who, what courses and in what way.

76. Are you in favor of university courses which explore feelings as well as thoughts?

Yes _____

No _____

Please explain your answer briefly.

APPENDIX B

ASSUMPTIONS OF THE OLD AND NEW
PARADIGMS OF LEARNING

APPENDIX B: Assumptions of the Old And New Paradigms of Learning

(from *The Aquarian Conspiracy* by Marilyn Ferguson, 1980)

ASSUMPTIONS OF THE OLD PARADIGM OF EDUCATION

Emphasis on *content*, acquiring a body of "right" information, once and for all.

Learning as a *product*, a destination.

Hierarchical and authoritarian structure. Rewards conformity, discourages dissent.

Relatively rigid structure, prescribed curriculum.

Lockstep progress, emphasis on the "appropriate" ages for certain activities, age segregation. Compartmentalized.

Priority on performance.

ASSUMPTIONS OF THE NEW PARADIGM OF LEARNING

Emphasis on learning how to learn, how to ask good questions, pay attention to the right things, be open to and evaluate new concepts, have access to information. What is now "known" may change. Importance of *context*.

Learning as a *process*, a journey.

Egalitarian. Candor and dissent permitted. Students and teachers see each other as people, not roles. Encourages autonomy.

Relatively flexible structure. Belief that there are many ways to teach a given subject.

Flexibility and integration of age groupings. Individual not automatically limited to certain subject matter by age.

Priority on self-image as the generator of performance

Emphasis on external world. Inner experience often considered inappropriate in school setting.

Inner experience seen as context for learning. Use of imagery, storytelling, dream journals, "centering" exercises, and exploration of feelings encouraged.

Bureaucratically determined, resistant to community input.

Encourages community input, even community control.

Education seen as a social necessity for a certain period of time, to inculcate minimum skills and train for a specific role.

Education seen as lifelong process, one only tangentially related to schools.

Increasing reliance on technology (audiovisual equipment, computers, tapes, texts), dehumanization.

Teacher is learner, too, learning from students.

APPENDIX C
ASSUMPTIONS IMPLICIT IN CURRENT EDUCATION
LEARNING: A HUMANISTIC ORIENTATION

APPENDIX C: Assumptions Implicit In Current Education

(from *Learning Systems, Models and Theories* by Sahkian, 1976)

ASSUMPTIONS IMPLICIT IN CURRENT EDUCATION

1. The student cannot be trusted to pursue his own learning.

2. Presentation equals learning.

purposes.

3. The aim of education is to accumulate brick upon brick of factual knowledge.

4. The "truth" is known.

5. Constructive creative citizens develop from independent learners.

6. Evaluation is education and education is evaluation.

LEARNING: A HUMANISTIC ORIENTATION

1. Human beings have a natural potentiality for learning.

2. Significant learning takes place when the subject matter is perceived by the student as having relevance for his own

3. Learning which involves a change in self-organization--in the perception of oneself is threatening and tends to be resisted.

4. Those learnings which are a threat to the self are more easily perceived and assimilated when external threats are at a minimum.

5. When threat to the self is low, experience can be perceived in differentiated fashion and learning can proceed.

6. Much significant learning is acquired through doing.

7. Learning is facilitated when the student participates responsibly in the learning processes.

8. Self-initiated learning which involves the whole person of the learner--feelings as well as intellect--is the most lasting and pervasive.

9. Independance, creativity and self-reliance are all facilitated when self-criticism and self-evaluation by others is of secondary importance.

10. The most socially useful learning in the modern world is learning of the process of learning, a continuing openness to experience and incorporation into oneself of the process of change.

APPENDIX D
BREAKDOWN OF QUESTIONNAIRE DESIGN

APPENDIX D: Breakdown of Questionnaire Design

Part A -- Demographic Variables

This section was designed to elicit relevant personal information such as age, sex, program, specialization, teaching experiences and vocational choice. This information would later be correlated with other sections of the questionnaire.

Part B -- Section I -- Affective History

Section I examines experiences with expression of feelings and emotions within the context of parental and teacher relationships. It also explores awareness and understanding of self. The various questions explore the following:

Questions 1 - 6: experiences with teachers

Questions 7 - 8: experiences with parents

Questions 9 - 11: experiences as a child

Questions 12 - 19: awareness of feelings as an adult

Questions 20 - 23: understanding of the distinction
between thinking and feeling

Part B - Section II - Educational Beliefs

Section II explores an individual's educational values and beliefs. Items were derived from the concepts found within the humanistic model of education. Items from more traditional models were also included in order to facilitate comparisons.

Part C - Affective Information

This section was intended to elicit more information about how people deal with feelings and emotions.

Part D - Classroom management Techniques

This section was designed to explore potential classroom practices. Four classroom scenarios were developed and respondents were asked to choose a management strategy. In each scenario, the strategies included an authoritarian, Rogerian, behavioral or TET choice. Respondents were then asked to categorize their choices into what they would ideally do and what they would actually do. This was intended to clarify whether students would make a distinction between their ideals and that which is practical.

Part E - University Experiences

This section was intended to explore respondents' exposure to humanistic concepts and experiences in the affective area and to discover whether or not students were in favor of affective development at the university level.